The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 20, 1886.

The Week.

THE appointment of a Collector of Internal Revenue is in itself a comparatively trivial act, but circumstances may render the President's action in filling such an office a matter of general interest. Such is the case with regard to Mr. Cleveland's selection for the Boston Collectorship. A year ago, through too implicit reliance upon party advisers whom he did not know so well then as he does now, he was persuaded to appoint Pillsbury to this place. The Senate rejected the nomination, and Mr. Cleveland's course in choosing Pillsbury's successor became a test of his fidelity to reform. After taking ample time for reflection, he has picked out Mr. John E. Fitzgerald, a Democrat of high character and of proved executive ability, a sincere believer in civil-service reform, and an outspoken advocate of better methods in politics—in short, a man thoroughly satisfactory to all Independent voters. All the circumstances of Mr. Fitzgerald's selection emphasize its significance. He was so far from being a seeker after the office that the President had to urge him to accept it as a duty. In an interview with him, as reported by a trustworthy Washington correspondent, "Mr. Cleveland expressed an earnest desire to make such appointments in Massachusetts as would give satisfaction to the Democratic party and to the young Independent element, whose work in the campaign of 1884 proved so powerful an aid to the Democratic party, and whose influence, the President believes, can be made a powerful factor in securing good government and in building up the party. He remarked incidentally to Mr. Fitzgerald that he did not know very much about affairs in Massachusetts, and what he desired as much as anything was accurate and trustworthy information about men. He wanted to appoint men of real standing to office, and not mere hangers-on and place-hunters. He did not seem to have a very high opinion of town committees as a source of information about candidates for office." The Blaine organs have been rejoicing over the story that the President had finally resolved to "abandon the Mugwumps," and prophesying that he would administer a pointed snub to the Independents every chance he got. The more abandonment and snubs of the Fitzgerald sort the Mugwumps suffer, the better will they like it.

The thriving little city of Springfield, Mass., is preparing to celebrate the 250th anniversary of its foundation next week, and has been felicitating itself upon possessing the fresh distinction of being a port of entry. Early in the session the business men made a push for the enactment by Congress of a law constituting Springfield a port of entry, and a few days ago the bill was sent to the President, who was expected to sign it as a matter of course. But on Monday Mr. Cleveland returned it with a statement of his objections, which are that, instead of increasing the number of ports, and thus the intricacies of the present system for collecting customs duties, the system itself should be reformed; that an experienced force of employees at the ports where goods for Springfield are admitted would be much better qualified to adjust the duties upon the same than the Surveyor of Customs at Springfield, whom it is proposed to add to the vast army of Federal officials; that there are many cities in the different States having larger populations than Springfield, and fully as much entitled (upon every ground presented) to the advantages sought by this bill; and that the following of precedents which the proposed legislation would establish could not fail to produce confusion and uncertainty in the adjustment of customs duties, leading to irritating discriminations and probable loss to the Government. Of course, the expense of these little inland custom-houses would not stop with the appointment of a Surveyor of Customs at each place. The Surveyor, in due time, would want clerks and office room and a bonded warehouse, together with furniture, stationery, lighting, heating, and repairs. Very few persons knew that any such bill was pending until the President returned it with his objections. The reasons why it was passed are still unknown to the country, and will probably forever remain a secret.

One of General Grant's notable services to the country as President was his firmness in blocking a threatening raid of the pension demagogues upon the Treasury by his refusal to approve the equalization of bounties scheme nearly a dozen years ago. This was a project for giving the soldier who received a small bounty early in the war the difference between that sum and the larger amount paid later in the struggle. The fatal defect of the proposition consisted in the fact that no real equalization was possible, since it was as unfair that a man who enlisted near the end of the war and never saw active service received $300, like the man who enlisted in 1862 and went through a score of battles, as that a man who enlisted in 1861 for three years received only $100, while another who enlisted in 1862 got $300. No one could tell how much the equalization scheme would cost, but $100,000,000 appeared to be a reasonable estimate. General Grant saw the unfairness of imposing upon the taxpayers so heavy a load for so unjustifiable a purpose, and when the bill came to him in the expiring hours of the Forty-third Congress on the 4th of March, 1875, he vetoed it and defeated the scheme.

It was hoped that this defeat of the project by the most distinguished soldier of the war meant its death, but it has maintained a lingering existence ever since, until Senator Logan has taken advantage of the present pension craze in Congress to report another bill for this purpose. In advocating its passage he says that "the reasons assigned by the President for his failure to give it his approval when it passed both houses in the Forty-third Congress—that the depleted condition of the Treasury would not warrant the payment of so large a sum—cannot be assigned at this time." Cannot, indeed? Senator Logan has apparently never taken the trouble to investigate the present and prospective condition of the Treasury. If he had done so, he would have learned that the estimated expenditures for the next fiscal year (beginning with July 1, 1886) exceed the estimated revenues by nearly $25,000,000, according to Secretary Manning's figures last December, while the act increasing widows' pensions since passed will swell the deficit to about $30,000,000. Moreover, Senator Logan is disingenuous when he gives the impression that General Grant based his veto solely upon the ground that the Treasury could not stand the strain. He gave another reason, which is now, as it was then, conclusive against the scheme, whether the Treasury were full or empty, in these words:

> "Second—I do not believe that any considerable proportion of the ex-soldiers who, it is supposed, will be the beneficiaries of this appropriation, are applicants for it, but rather it would result more in a measure for the relief of claim agents and middlemen, who intervene, or would intervene, to collect or discount the bounty granted by it."

Happily, if the Congressional demagogues should in 1886 again pass this $100,000,000 Equalization Bill, the taxpayers may depend upon a Democratic President to protect the Treasury, as a Republican President did when a similar raid was made in 1875.

A cable telegram from London supplies the long-concealed reason of the Canadian authorities for seizing the fishing schooner *David J. Adams*. It was drawn out by an inquiry in Parliament, which led to the statement on the part of the Under-Secretary for the Colonies that "the schooner had not complied with maritime law, had concealed her name, her port, and her register; that the case would be investigated in the Halifax Admiralty Court, and that no question of territorial waters was involved." This was the substance of a reply made by the Marquis of Lansdowne, Governor-General of Canada, to an inquiry from Lord Granville. Other information corroborates this, but there can scarcely be a doubt that the seizure was made for a different reason (viz., bait buying), and that the fact of the *Adams* being without regular papers, and having thus committed an infraction of maritime law, came in as a lucky accident, and supplied an afterthought to justify what would otherwise have been a serious breach of international comity.

The amendment to the Dingley Shipping Bill, passed by unanimous vote of the Senate on Monday, authorizing the President to accord to the vessels of foreign countries the same trading privileges that they accord to our vessels, is of course intended to put a little common sense into the heads of our Canadian neighbors, who are now seizing American fishing vessels for the offence of buying bait in their ports, in violation, as they say, of the Treaty of 1818. That treaty admitted our fishermen to Canadian ports for shelter, repairs, wood, and water, and for no

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other purposes. Since that time, however, both Great Britain and the United States have extended the privileges of foreign vessels in their ports to all the subjects of lawful trade except the coastwise carrying trade, the laws of Great Britain including that also. At all events the contention on our side is, that the Treaty of 1818, as regards trade, but not as regards fishing limits, has been specifically superseded by subsequent legislation. Of this there can be very little doubt. Still less can we doubt that the technicalities which surround the fishing business — and they are certainly numerous—must yield to the prime consideration that what the Canadians are willing to sell, whether it be firewood or ice, tarred rope or bait, we have the right to buy. The right to fish within the three-mile limit is a different matter altogether, and when any such question is raised it must be considered by itself; but the right to buy herring for bait is in nowise different from the right to buy herring for food. There can be no two opinions upon this question among us. Those who regard this whole fishery dispute as an unworthy trick and device to tax the people of the United States a cent a pound on their fish food for the benefit of a class whose industry, according to their own account, has been increasing, and therefore flourishing, without any duty these ten years past, are bound, equally with all others, to uphold the common rights of maritime intercourse for fishermen, as well as for everybody who finds his livelihood upon the sea.

Mr. Blair got his little pension bill before the Senate on Thursday, and urged its passage on the ground that it would take "only $25,000,000" a year out of the Treasury—which is, of course, a mere bagatelle to the New Hampshire statesman. An excellent speech against the scheme was made by Mr. Berry, of Arkansas, an ex-Confederate soldier, whose chief points are thus summarized:

"Mr. Berry said the Senate was asked to vote on this bill with eyes closed. The Committee gave no estimate of the amount of money it involved. Even the personal opinion of Mr. Blair upon it was admittedly indefinite, and the Senate could not say whether the amount called for by the bill would be $25,000,000 or $50,000,000. Nobody denied that the men who defended the flag were entitled to reward—least of all would that be denied by the men who had opposed them; but it did not follow that every other obligation should be ignored, or that we should be unmindful of the rights of the vast number of people in this country who were not soldiers. Mr. Berry thought it time to call a halt. He did not believe the Union soldiers wanted this bill. As a rule they were men able to take care of themselves. He judged of the Union soldiers by their opponents in saying that he did not believe they wanted this bill. The soldiers of the South, he said, returned from the war to find only lone chimneys standing to mark the places where happy homes had stood. Yet those soldiers had worked their way out of their difficulties. He had never known an Arkansas soldier to beg for bread or become dependent on the public for support. He (Mr. Berry) was opposed to the bill—not that he is not as loyal a citizen and as proud of his American citizenship and of his country as the men that had followed General Grant, but because the condition of the soldiers did not demand it, and the condition of the people and their finances did not warrant it."

It would scarcely be possible to state more strongly the argument against the proposed law of Congress to tax bogus butter out of existence than it is stated in an article in the *Ohio Farmer*, by Mr. J. T. Brooks. The fact is brought out with great clearness that the rights of those who make butter out of tallow are as sacred as the rights of those who make it out of cream, and that legislation discriminating against one of them may be invoked against the other and against all other trades and occupations in turn. In other words, it will eventually devolve upon Congress to decide what trades and industries, harmless in themselves, people shall be allowed to make their living by. Mr. Brooks holds that when laws shall have been passed to prevent the deception of the buyer, so that he may know exactly what he is buying, all the ends of safe and proper legislation will have been reached. Anything beyond that is a dangerous infringement of liberty.

Governor Hill's appointment, for it really is his, of John O'Brien as Receiver of the Broadway Railway is thoroughly bad. Mr. O'Brien is Chairman of the Democratic State Committee and the largest contractor upon the new aqueduct. He is generally believed to be hand-in-glove with Squire, and to have organized with him and John J. O'Brien the "deal" by which the new Aqueduct Bill was passed. He is a politician pure and simple, who believes in using every office and position of public trust for the benefit of his party. His appointment means the introduction of "politics" into the settlement of the Broadway Railway controversy, and greatly complicates a case which was sufficiently complicated before. The Governor's hand in the selection is perfectly plain. The appointment was approved by Judge Parker, who was himself Chairman of the Democratic Executive Committee of this State in the campaign in which Governor Hill was elected, and whose services in that campaign the Governor rewarded by making him a Supreme Court judge in place of the late Judge Westbrook. The Governor is using every appointment in his gift as a means for building up in the State a Hill Machine which will boom him as a Presidential candidate. He was elected as a genuine Jeffersonian Democrat, who represented the spoils wing of his party, and he is simply carrying out the doctrines which he has always professed.

There is a curious experiment being made by the politicians of both parties in this State, and we shall watch with great interest to see how it results. Governor Hill is doing his best upon the one hand to make himself a Presidential nominee by the use of patronage. He makes an occasional pretence of zeal for the public good, but it is usually very feeble, and is so thinly disguised that it deceives nobody. He has the solid Democratic organization behind him, and he may be said to represent an organized and systematic movement of the Democratic party in New York State to demonstrate that civil-service reform doctrines are played out, and that the spoils doctrine is the one for the party to win on in 1888. In the Republican ranks, the politicians are making a precisely similar movement in the interest of Mr. Blaine. Indeed, they have openly joined hands with the Hill Democrats in a plunder combination, dividing the patronage, and scoffing at reformers and reforms. Thus a Hill boom and a Blaine boom are being "worked" side by side in New York State, each based upon public plunder, each based upon open defiance of the public interest, and each vying with the other in derision of reform principles. The pushers of each are trusting that the same spoils machine which they expect will give their candidate the Presidential nomination, will be powerful enough to give him the electoral vote of the State afterward—in other words, that they can secure enough plunder from the taxpayers to buy a Presidential election.

Massachusetts has lost her old leadership. It was not until a year after New York had set the example that a civil-service law was enacted in Massachusetts, and now that the politicians in this State have unwillingly concluded that the merit system cannot be overthrown, the legislators in Massachusetts are diligently engaged in breaking it down, with every prospect of success. A bill has passed the lower House by an overwhelming majority, against the earnest protests of many veterans, allowing old soldiers to be appointed to office without passing any examination. The politicians make no concealment of their expectation that this will prove the first step toward doing away with civil-service reform entirely, and the fact that such a measure should pass the Massachusetts House by a vote of nearly three to one shows a sad state of demoralization among the law-makers.

The naïveté of the Central Labor Union all through these labor troubles has been something very diverting. There is probably no other body of men earning an honest livelihood in this country who would publicly denounce the police as their great enemy. In all free countries, whatever objections some may have to the army, every man, even the thief, at least affects to feel no dread of the constable. But the Central Labor Union actually passed the following resolution on Sunday:

"Resolved, That we, the members of the Central Labor Union, view the passage of the bill to create 500 extra police as a direct menace to the organized workingmen of this city, and we ask Governor Hill to withhold his signature."

This suggests the question whether the Union does not consider the proposed increase of the force really an aggravation of an existing evil—that is, whether the whole force is not a menace to the Union, and the addition of 500 men a deepening of the wrong. Not long ago a Labor Union in Troy passed a resolution calling on the delegates to the Legislature from the district to introduce a bill forbidding the introduction into the county of strange detectives from other counties, by way of preparation for a grand strike this summer. Shall we not soon have a meeting of "laborers" in the upper wards asking for the withdrawal of the police from the district above Fifty-ninth Street between ten and five every night? Is not the presence of the police in that region a constant and insulting threat to a large class of toilers?

A "Union" in Brooklyn a few weeks ago peremptorily ordered the sugar refiners to strike

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at an hour when a cessation of work would cause immense loss to the employers, and not to resume work unless their employers would accede to their demands. The employers saw that compliance meant the surrender of all control over their business to this irresponsible body, and refused to yield. The strikers loudly declared that they would only return in a body, and they set out to prevent by violence other men who were anxious to work from taking their places. The employers gradually filled the refineries with men who had courage enough to take the chances of getting their heads broken, until the strikers saw that all hope of success was gone and made a rush for the vacant places. Now that all of them have lost a month's wages, and many of them all chance of earning wages in their old places, the interesting fact comes out that the strike was ordered by an "Executive Committee" of three, only one of whom ever worked in a sugar house, while of the other two, one keeps a liquor-saloon which has been the headquarters of the "Union," and the third is about to open a rum-shop!

The first trial of a boycotter for law-breaking has just occurred at New Haven, where a "walking delegate," who had been trying to break up another man's business, has been fined $50 and costs. The case goes to a higher court upon appeal, but no doubt appears to be entertained that the decision will be sustained. The idea that one man may deliberately go to work to ruin another man's business, is not likely to hold water in the courts of any State.

Boycotting appears to be as unpopular in Western as in Eastern courts. A Milwaukee baker chose to employ men who did not belong to a "Union," and the "Union" resolved to ruin his business by boycotting him. But one of the boycotters was arrested while distributing circulars in front of the bakery, and promptly sentenced by the Court to pay a fine of $25, the Judge declaring that "such interference was unlawful, as it was clearly a scheme to destroy the business of a man who refused to be intimidated." He compared boycotting with mob rule, and added that he was surprised that the people had stood so much of it without bringing the offenders to justice.

The recently issued report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction in Kentucky is the most encouraging piece of news that has come from that State for many a year. The curse of Kentucky has been the ignorance of the masses of her people, and the despair of her enlightened citizens has been the contentment of the masses with their ignorance. The State is rich and prosperous; it is much better able to provide efficient public schools and give all its children a good education than such New England commonwealths as New Hampshire and Vermont. The trouble has been that the taxpayers could not be made to see their duty. The encouraging thing about this report is that it shows that the people have at last awakened to a sense of the situation. In 1880 the State school fund was only $627,143; in 1886 it is $1,029,481. In 1880 local taxation for school purposes yielded only $384,910; now it yields $589,082. The total increase since 1880 exceeds $600,000, while a new assessment law is expected further to increase the school revenues by fully $400,000 a year. The absurdity of the Blair bill, which a Kentucky representative, Mr. Willis, has dishonored his State by advocating, could not be more conclusively demonstrated than by these figures. In 1880, the advocates of Federal aid begged for it on the plea that Kentucky could not raise any more money for schools than she was then raising; in 1886 she is raising above $600,000 more than in 1880, and in 1887 the increase will probably exceed $1,000,000.

The departure of Mr. Augustin Daly and his company for England and the European Continent on Saturday is an event of something more than merely theatrical interest. Mr. Daly is one of the very few managers in this country who are qualified by education, experience, and natural aptitude for the positions which they occupy, and who understand and try to illustrate the artistic possibilities and real significance of their profession. Admirers and students of the stage would despair of its future were it not for the intelligent efforts of men like him and two or three of his most prominent rivals, and the hearty support which has borne witness to the public appreciation of those efforts. Mr. Daly's company is unrivalled on this side of the Atlantic in representations of light modern comedy, and certainly need not fear comparison with any organization of a similar character in Europe. It is honestly entitled to exhibit itself as an example of American dramatic achievement in a most attractive and varied field, and will dissipate, it is to be hoped, some of the false impressions which must have been created during the last two or three years by certain pretenders who have disported themselves in London, and have been accepted as actors of high standing in America. Mr. Jefferson, Mr. Booth, Mr. Barrett, and Mr. McCullough have proved by their individual excellences that the dramatic art is not neglected here, but their triumphs were personal, whereas Mr. Daly trusts to no one member of his company for success, whether it be artistic or pecuniary. It is because his company is essentially American in its composition, its training, its intelligence, and its methods, that his enterprise deserves to be watched with sympathetic interest. The critical praise bestowed upon his players upon their first excursion across the sea makes it certain that their welcome this time will be hearty. They will challenge fortune not only in London, but in Liverpool, Glasgow, Edinburgh, Dublin, Hamburg, Berlin, and Paris, where they will find many old friends. In this tour Mr. Daly, if he be wise, will find a double opportunity. Money is good, and his countrymen will wish him an abundance of it, but instruction is better still, and it is to be hoped, for his own sake and New York's, that he will give his actors a chance of studying the best acting in Europe, as well as of displaying their own abilities.

All signs point to a dissolution of Parliament in England. This appears to be the only way of getting rid of the opposition to home rule which has been developed within the Liberal party under the leadership of Chamberlain and Hartington. That it will get rid of it pretty effectually there now appears to be little doubt. In other words, Gladstone seems likely to sweep the country almost as overwhelmingly as in 1880. The leading Liberal organizations are one by one rallying to his support—the last being that of London, perhaps the most radical of all. All that have spoken repudiate Chamberlain, whose blunder appears to be one of the most inexplicable ever committed by a public man. His overestimate of his own weight with the country as compared to Gladstone's has evidently been immense. What has most damaged him, however, is not so much the fact that he has differed with Gladstone and separated himself from him, as the manner in which he has done it. The first sign of departure from the paths of rectitude was his suggestion that because Gladstone made a mistake about the secessionist movement at the South, he therefore had probably made another about the home-rule movement in Ireland. This was clearly not only a spiteful but a disingenuous suggestion. It does not follow from Gladstone's having erred twenty years ago about a foreign question on which his information was necessarily imperfect, that his opinion is worthless on a home question to-day with which he has been familiar for half a century. The mention of it, in fact, was a mere jibe, which, coming from a political youngster to a veteran under whom he had made his début, was, to say the least, unbecoming.

Mr. Chamberlain's new position, about the right of Ulster not to be governed by the rest of Ireland, is so disingenuous and misleading that it cannot but still further shake the confidence of the mass of English Liberals in his honesty as well as his sagacity. Of all the pretences put forward by the opponents of home rule, the pretence that Ulster is an exclusively Protestant and English or Scotch province is the shallowest, and yet it has played, and is playing, a leading part in the discussion. The total population of the nine counties of Ulster is 1,464,587; of these 633,566, or nearly one-half, are Catholics. But this is not the whole story. In only four of the nine counties—Antrim, Armagh, Down, and Derry—are the Protestants in a majority. In all the others the Catholics outnumber them overwhelmingly. So that what the opponents of home rule really mean when they are talking of "Ulster" is a small part of Ulster, and when they are demanding autonomy or separation for it, they are really claiming the right of the 671,687 Protestants in these four counties, out of a population of over 5,000,000, to set up an *imperium in imperio*, and live apart from the rest of the community, which is ridiculous. There is no doubt that these 671,687 are on the whole more wealthy and prosperous than other Irishmen, which is a reason why they should have the fullest protection against any sort of hostile or discriminating legislation; but Mr. Gladstone's bill affords all such protection that law, backed by the British army and navy, can give.

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SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, May 12, to TUESDAY, May 18, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND on Monday vetoed the bill making Springfield, Mass., a port of entry. He says: "I am of the opinion that the reforms of present methods, which have been lately earnestly pressed upon Congress, should be inaugurated instead of increasing the number of ports where present evils may be further extended. The bill now under consideration provides that a Surveyor of Customs shall be appointed to reside at said port, who shall receive a salary not to exceed $1,000 per annum. It is quite obvious that an experienced force of employees at the ports where goods for Springfield are admitted, would be much better qualified to adjust the duties upon the same than the person thus proposed to be added to the vast army of Federal officials."

Up to this date the President has in all sent about 2,100 nominations for civil offices to the Senate. Of these 1,700 have been confirmed and only 13 rejected. The remaining 400 will be disposed of in a comparatively short time, and it is not expected that the proportion of rejections will be increased.

The Senate on Wednesday passed the Inter-State Commerce Bill by a vote of 43 to 4. It contains the important amendment prohibiting the charging of more for a short than a long haul over the same line, in the same direction, from the same starting-point or to the same destination.

The Senate Committee on Commerce on Thursday ordered a favorable report on Senator Frye's bill to limit the commercial privileges of vessels of foreign countries in the ports of the United States to such purposes as are accorded to American vessels in the ports of such foreign countries. The bill will be reported as an amendment to the Shipping Bill.

In the Senate on Monday Mr. Frye (Rep., Me.) called up the House Shipping Bill. This is the bill passed by the House of Representatives on February 4 last abolishing the fees for measuring tonnage, for issuing licenses, registry certificates, and a great variety of other fees. Mr. Frye moved to add to it as a new section the provisions of the bill recently reported by him from the Committee on Commerce, authorizing the President to issue a proclamation, whenever he may deem proper, denying to vessels of foreign countries such privileges as are denied in such foreign countries to vessels of the United States. This means retaliation for the recent action of the Dominion of Canada in excluding United States vessels from certain privileges in Canadian ports, though the provision is not confined to Canada, but is made general, so as to apply to all foreign countries. The amendment was agreed to without debate, and the bill was passed and a committee of conference was ordered.

The Senate on Monday defeated a proposition of Mr. Logan that all pensions which have been allowed to soldiers at a less rate than $8 a month shall be increased to that amount, and that no smaller pension than $8 shall be hereafter granted.

The Copyright Bill which the Senate Committee on Patents has agreed to report favorably, is, in its main features, the bill which was introduced by Senator Chace, of Rhode Island. Stated in the briefest possible terms, the bill proposes to give to foreign authors copyright in the United States upon the condition that their books shall be printed in this country, and to prohibit the importation of foreign copyrighted books. The bill seems to be one for the protection of American publishers, with incidental protection for the foreign author. It contains no provisions as to the reciprocal use of stereotype plates in the two countries; it was decided that this subject was too technical to be considered. It is assumed by the friends of the bill that notwithstanding the severe provisions as to the printing of foreign books in this country, Great Britain will, by an order in council, give to American authors the benefit of copyright in that country. The bill will be vigorously opposed by those who advocate the unrestricted importation of British books and by the publishers of reprints, and it will also be opposed by many American authors.

The House on Wednesday passed the Army Appropriation Bill without amendment.

The House on Thursday passed the Diplomatic and Consular Appropriation Bill without a division. The Senate passed a bill authorizing the Secretary of the Navy to fit out an expedition to observe the total eclipse of the sun on August 29, on the west coast of Africa, and appropriating $10,000 for the purpose.

The House on Monday voted, 196 to 18, to suspend the rules, and set apart June 3 for the consideration of bills presented by the Labor Committee. An effort to include the Educational Bill failed. The list includes bills to prevent the employment of aliens on public works; to forbid the use of products of convict labor on public buildings; to allow Government employees leaves of absence who are not now entitled to them; to restore the old and higher rates of wages in the Government Printing Office; to extend the operation of the Eight-Hour Law; to protect employees in their wages; to amend the law relating to the importation of laborers under contract, and to grant national charters to trades-unions.

It is understood that the bill to levy a tax upon oleomargarine, which is in charge of the House Committee on Agriculture, will be put to a vote in the House as soon as the opportunity offers. There seems to be little, if any, doubt of its passage, and when it comes to the Senate the Committee on Agriculture will promptly report it for action. The bill, which also puts the manufacture of oleomargarine under the supervision of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, will, it is said, surround the manufacture with wholesome restrictions.

In the Court of Claims, on Monday, Judge Davis delivered the opinion of the Court in relation to the liability of the Government for the French spoliation claims, in which the Chief Justice and all the judges concur. After deciding that the statute giving the Court jurisdiction required an examination of the validity of the claims as against France, and the assumption of the responsibility for them by the United States in the treaty of 1800, the opinion sets forth the obligations assumed by the two Governments in the treaties of 1778, by which France pledged herself to secure our independence, and we undertook to guarantee her American possessions, and to give her other special privileges. Following the history of the two nations after our peace with Great Britain, it shows the illegal attacks upon American commerce by the French Revolutionary Government, and our failure to abide by our promises to France made in 1778, and then concludes that by the treaty of 1800, as shown by that instrument itself and the negotiations which led to it, the spoliation claims were surrendered in consideration that the United States be released from any obligations under the treaties of 1778; and the Court, after discussing the law, is of the opinion that the claims are a valid obligation against this country, which sacrificed the rights of its individual citizens to secure a great national advantage. The court also holds that the treaties of 1803 and 1831 with France, and the treaty of 1819 with Spain, do not apply to the spoliation claims, and therefore the claimants should recover. Many reports have been made in Congress in favor of this view, and but three against it, and those three were made prior to the publication of the diplomatic correspondence on the subject. Two acts were passed providing for payment, but one was vetoed by President Polk, the other by President Pierce. Finally, Congress, by an act approved by President Arthur, sent the matter to the Court of Claims for examination.

Assistant Secretary Jenks of the Interior Department has resigned to become the permanent counsel of a millionaire.

The Interior Department has at last suspended Mr. McGillicuddy, the agent at the Pine Ridge Agency in Dakota. The charge is insubordination.

Captain Hatfield, with a troop of cavalry, struck Geronimo a heavy blow on Saturday morning at a point ten miles southeast of Santa Cruz, N. M. He stampeded the hostiles, capturing their horses and entire camp outfit. A few hours later, while passing through a cañon, a galling fire was suddenly poured on the little band. The men dismounted and made a gallant fight for an hour. Two of them were killed and three wounded. Many Indians fell. Captain Hatfield and his men finally reached Santa Cruz. The Mexican General Martinez routed the Yaquis from their stronghold in Sierra Bacatche on May 13, killing 100 and capturing 200 of the band. The Mexicans lost twenty killed and fifty wounded. This virtually ends the Yaquis war. A raid by Geronimo's band is apprehended in Arizona. The people are without adequate protection, and a massacre is feared.

The Chicago police on Friday night arrested a man named Louis Linng, who, they say, is beyond a doubt the man who threw the destructive bomb on May 4.

The Chicago lumbermen renewed their strike on Monday.

Five Socialists, while engaged on Sunday in San Francisco in haranguing a crowd, were arrested and charged with a misdemeanor.

The Ohio Senate on Wednesday reënacted the Scott Liquor Tax Law, which provides for a tax of $100 and $200. It has the lien clause and Sunday-closing feature in its provisions. It passed the House on Thursday.

Governor Hill on Wednesday signed two of the gas bills—the Reilly bill, compelling all companies to charge no more than $1 25 per 1,000 feet for gas, and the Thomas bill, regulating the method of organizing gas companies in future in New York. The third bill, providing for the establishment of a gas commission to protect the consumers, was vetoed by the Governor.

On Thursday the Governor nominated for Aqueduct Commissioners Hamilton Fish, jr., E. L. Ridgeway, and O. W. Barnes. The Senate immediately confirmed them without going into secret session. The Senate rejected the nomination of George H. Sterling, of Brooklyn, for Port Warden by a party vote.

Upon the application of Attorney-General O'Brien, Judge Parker, of Albany, has appointed John O'Brien (the principal contractor on the New York Aqueduct, Chairman of the Democratic State Committee, and political partner of Maurice B. Flynn) receiver of the Broadway Railroad.

In the New York Assembly on Wednesday the Bruns bill to practically put the different departments of this city in control of Commissioner Squire, was killed by an overwhelming vote. Both houses of the Legislature agreed on that day to adjourn *sine die* on May 20.

The New York Assembly on Thursday passed the Excise Commissioners Appointment Bill by 79 to 31. This gives the power of appointment to the President of the Board of Aldermen, instead of to the Mayor. Its passage is a victory for the "Johnny" O'Brien lobby

The Senate at Albany on Monday night sent the Excise Commission Bill to the Cities Committee, thus probably putting an end to it.

The Executive Committee of thirty-one citizens appointed to arrange for a mass meeting for the formation of an independent local political movement in this city, met on Friday

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night for consultation. A committee of three was appointed to arrange for a mass meeting of citizens to be held at the Academy of Music on either the 28th or 29th inst. It was also decided to invite about 300 citizens outside of the committee to join the movement.

In the trial of Alderman Henry W. Jaehne, of this city, for bribery, in the Court of Oyer and Terminer, the case was given to the jury at 10:53 o'clock Saturday night. At 1:10 A. M. on Sunday the jury returned a verdict of guilty. A motion for a new trial will be made.

A dreadful tornado struck Odell, Ill., a town of 900 inhabitants, on Wednesday afternoon, destroying houses, barns, and sheds, and causing damage to the amount of $50,000. Scarcely a store in the town escaped injury. Two people were fatally hurt. Terrible wind and hail storms were also reported from Rockford, Ill., Peru, Ind., and Winchester, Va. A terrible waterspout at Xenia, Ohio, on Wednesday afternoon, swept away 100 houses. Twenty-four people were killed. Telegraph wires throughout Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio were prostrated. A tornado wrecked the town of Dunkirk, Ohio, on Friday night, killing four people. Severe storms were also felt in Michigan and Kansas.

FOREIGN.

A political meeting was held at the London residence of Mr. Joseph Chamberlain on Wednesday. Sixty members of the House of Commons were present. Mr. Chamberlain explained the renewal of his activity against Mr. Gladstone's Home-Rule Bill by saying, that he had been clearly informed on Saturday last that the Premier was prepared to expunge from the measure the clause excluding Irish representatives from sitting at Westminster, and thus maintain the unity of the empire as desired by the Radicals. Mr. Chamberlain declared that now nothing short of the withdrawal of the Home-Rule Bill would restore unity among the Liberals. The meeting unanimously adopted resolutions declaring that those present would do the utmost in their power to oppose the Government's Irish bills, as there was no hope that the measures would be amended in a way to make them acceptable to the followers of Mr. Chamberlain. Mr. Caine stated that 102 Liberal members had promised to vote against the Home-Rule Bill and that there were thirty-four Liberal members who were undecided as to what course to pursue toward it.

A meeting of the followers of Lord Hartington was held on Friday for the purpose of cementing the Whig and Radical opposition to the Home-Rule Bill. Sixty-four gentlemen attended, including Mr. Chamberlain, Mr. Trevelyan, and Mr. Caine. Lord Hartington made a twenty-minutes speech, in which he explained the reasons why Liberals should oppose Mr. Gladstone's measure. He declared that the pledges from Liberals to oppose Mr. Gladstone's Home-Rule Bill were sufficient in number to make the rejection of the bill on its second reading a certainty. The defeat of the bill, he said, would cast a heavy responsibility on him, which, however, he was quite prepared to accept. The meeting was harmonious throughout, and unanimously adopted a resolution that those present would oppose the second reading of the Home-Rule Bill.

Lord Hartington's "whips" report that 110 Liberals have pledged themselves to vote against the Home-Rule Bill, and 30 are doubtful.

The Orangemen of Australia have sent a cable despatch to the Loyalists of Ireland, promising to aid them in their endeavors to prevent the adoption of Mr. Gladstone's Home Rule scheme.

The debate on the Home-Rule Bill was continued in the House of Commons on Thursday night. Mr. H. Campbell-Bannerman, Secretary of State for War, declared that the Government were quite ready to consider all suggestions for the retention of Irish representatives at Westminster. Mr. E. A. Leatham, member for Huddersfield, a Reformer, asked whether Mr. Parnell would accept the bill as a settlement of the Irish question. Mr. Parnell rose in his place and emphatically replied, "Yes." Mr. Leatham retorted that he had been unable to gather that idea from Mr. Parnell's previous speeches. An uproar ensued.

After an informal Cabinet council, it is reported that Mr. Gladstone, yielding to the urgent advice of Mr. Morley and Lord Spencer, has decided if defeated to demand from the Queen an immediate dissolution of Parliament. Mr. Chamberlain is deluged with Radical protests against his action.

During the debate on the Home-Rule Bill in the House of Commons on Monday night, Mr. James Bryce, Under Foreign Secretary, said that the Government was perfectly willing to appeal to the country. The retention of Irish representatives at Westminster was a detail that it would be impossible to discuss at this stage.

Mr. Gladstone, in the House of Commons on Tuesday afternoon, moved that the House devote four nights out of the five given to Parliamentary business every week to the debate on the Home-Rule Bill. The proposal produced a sensation, as it was generally believed that the Government had about given up hope of carrying their measure, and would bring on the crisis as early as possible. An excited discussion at once followed Mr. Gladstone's motion. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, Conservative, said his party wanted a pledge that the debate would be finished on Friday next. To this Mr. Gladstone answered that his reckoning extended the debate far beyond the date fixed by the Opposition. After a long discussion Mr. Gladstone's motion was carried. Nine converts to Mr. Gladstone's scheme have been made in the House since Saturday, and others are wavering. The chances for passing the bill are therefore considered brighter.

The London Liberal Radical Council on Monday followed the lead of the National Liberal Federation in supporting Mr. Gladstone strongly against Mr. Chamberlain. Although a very radical body, it was with great difficulty that Mr. Chamberlain's friends induced the meeting to drop from the resolution the clauses specifically censuring Mr. Chamberlain.

A mob of Nationalists attacked a number of Protestant peasants while the latter were returning from market at Cookstown, County Tyrone, Ireland, on Saturday. The Protestants resisted the attack, and several of them were roughly handled, two being badly hurt.

Sir Thomas Erskine May, who a few weeks ago became Baron Farnborough, died on Monday at the age of seventy-one. He was appointed Clerk of the House of Commons in 1871, and held that position until the opening of the present session of Parliament, when he resigned on account of ill-health. Mr. Gladstone, Mr. Parnell, and Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, as representatives of their parties, then delivered warm eulogies on his career. He wrote a treatise on the 'Law, Privileges, Proceedings, and Usage of Parliament' in 1844, which, being acknowledged as the Parliamentary text-book, passed through several editions.

Queen Christina, of Spain, on Monday gave birth to a son and heir to the Spanish throne. The usual pomp and ceremony were observed. In the Cortes Señor Sagasta expressed the satisfaction of the nation at the birth of the King, and he called upon Spaniards to defend their young monarch. Señor Torino made a similar appeal on behalf of the Conservatives. The babe will be christened during the present week and will probably be named Fernando Ildefonso. There is great rejoicing in Madrid over the event.

A terrible hurricane swept across the middle of Spain on Thursday. In Madrid thirty-two persons are known to have been instantly killed, and 620 others have been seriously injured. The wind struck the city with the suddenness of lightning. Tramcars and cabs were overturned and broken into splinters, roofs were dislodged, and telegraph wires everywhere torn from their poles. The parks in and about the city were devastated and in some cases entirely denuded. One church tower was blown down. A number of houses in the suburbs were entirely wrecked. The damage exceeds $1,200,000.

M. Valvis, as Premier and Minister of Justice, has succeeded in forming a new Greek Ministry. The Ministry is colorless, and the only duty imposed on it is to convoke the Chamber of Deputies. The Greek Government has rescinded the order for the advance of troops to the front.

M. Pillot, an agent for the Banque d'escompte of Paris, who recently fled after uttering a large amount of forged paper, on Friday suddenly appeared in the private office of Baron Soubeyran, the director of the bank, and, at the point of a loaded revolver, compelled him to sign three checks for $30,000, with which Pillot then escaped.

Professor Leopold von Ranke, the aged German historian, is seriously ill.

In the Canadian House of Commons on Monday the Minister of Marine introduced a bill confining the rights of foreign fishing vessels in Canadian waters to those expressly mentioned in the Treaty of 1818, and proposing that if a foreign vessel has been found fishing or preparing to fish within three miles of the coast, or has entered Canadian waters for any purpose not permitted by the law of nations, or by treaty or convention, or by any law of the United Kingdom or of Canada, or, having entered such waters, has failed to comply with any such law of the United Kingdom or of Canada, such vessel and the rigging and cargo thereof shall be forfeited.

The American fishing schooner *Ella M. Doughty*, of Portland, Me., was seized on Monday by the authorities of Englishtown, N. S.

Mr. Stevens, the American, who is making a tour on a bicycle around the world, has been arrested while crossing the frontier of Afghanistan.

Vice-Admiral Don Patricio Lynch, of the Chilian Navy, while on his way to Peru from Spain, where he was Minister, has died at sea; his body was landed at Teneriffe. Admiral Lynch was the son of a wealthy Irish merchant who married a Chilian lady. He was born in Santiago in 1825. His early training was received in the Chilian and English navies. His career was notable for daring achievements. Throughout the recent war with Peru he was the most conspicuous Chilian commander. At the head of a naval and military expedition he undertook the invasion of the northern provinces of Peru, which up to that time had been unvisited by war, and which furnished the enemy with abundant supplies. This expedition, which required on the part of the Admiral courage and science of no ordinary character, was conducted with consummate ability and terminated in brilliant success. He ravaged the enemy's territory, spread desolation far and wide, captured cities containing 10,000 inhabitants, took part in a campaign which reduced Lima, and terminated in a decisive manner the war between Chili and Peru. He was Military Governor of Peru throughout the period of occupation, and his rule was eminently humane and effective. He suppressed the Calderon Government, and planned the campaign by which Caceres, marching against Iglesias, was defeated at Huamachuco in 1883. He managed the instalment of Iglesias in Lima in the following October, and then withdrew his Chilian garrison to Chorillos. There he remained till the Iglesias peace was fully ratified by the Peruvian National Assemoly. Admiral Lynch became the head of the Chilian navy in 1883.

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THE WAY THE SOUTHWESTERN STRIKE WAS ORDERED.

THE exhaustive treatment which every important event in our times receives from the daily newspapers, seldom leaves anything of consequence to be developed by the more leisurely inquiries of the authorities. For this reason nobody expected that the Congressional Committee appointed last month to investigate the great strike in the Southwest would bring to light much that was new or important, and the press associations sent East shorter and shorter abstracts of the testimony given at St. Louis as the investigation neared its close last week. But, contrary to all the precedents, we have found, by a careful reading of the full reports in the St. Louis papers, that the evidence given by a number of the witnesses before this Committee is of the most vital importance to a correct understanding, not only of the strike itself, but also of the secret, oath-bound organization by which the strike was ordered. The "true inwardness" of the despotism which has been established by the Knights of Labor has here for the first time been thoroughly exposed.

Everybody knows that the whole gigantic disturbance of industry in half-a-dozen States grew out of the discharge by the Texas-Pacific Railway Company of a man named Hall, who was a foreman in the company's shops at Marshall, Tex. The Texas-Pacific is in the hands of a receiver appointed by the United States Court of the Fifth Judicial Circuit, and some weeks ago Captain C. E. Henry, of Cleveland, Ohio, was directed by the court to make a thorough investigation into the causes of the trouble on that railroad. Captain Henry visited Marshall, Jefferson, Texarkana, Dallas, Fort Worth, and Big Springs, where he diligently prosecuted his investigations, obtaining data sufficient to enable him to make an exhaustive report on the subject. A reporter of the *Globe-Democrat* interviewed him as he passed through St. Louis on his return last week, and thus summarized Captain Henry's statements:

"From what information he had obtained he considered that the property of the road had been in great danger for three or four weeks, and that it was only through the greatest vigilance that more of it had not been destroyed. The most active and zealous among the Knights of Labor considered it their duty to assault every man who asked the privilege of working without being molested. He commenced taking testimony at Marshall on April 9, and the evidence generally obtained was that most of the men engaged in the strike did not know what it was for. *He inquired specially into Hall's case, and the testimony showed that he was a worthless workman by reason of his indifference to his duties, his attention being absorbed in studying the rules of the Knights of Labor, and devoting time to committee work for his order that should have been given to the railroad company.* Everything in his (Hall's) estimation appeared to be secondary to the Knights of Labor, and he assumed in his imagination the responsibilities of the general manager, legal adviser, and general executive officer of the road, and wanted everything subordinated to the organization to which he belonged. Captain Henry said he had examined the company's books, which showed that under Hall's foremanship the work in the shops had cost the company 50 per cent. more than it did under his predecessor. He thought the company would have saved a great deal of money if it had paid Hall a good salary to keep away from the shops."

So much for the man about whom the strike was ordered. Now for the man who ordered the strike, and who forced the Knights of Labor to stop work not only on the Texas-Pacific, but on the whole Gould system of railroads. Martin Irons appeared before the Committee on Friday. The *Republican*, which has always been disposed to show the strikers as much favor as possible, thus describes the man:

"A weak, irresolute, half-cunning, half-frightened face he turned toward the Committee. He wore a dirty white shirt and a dirty white collar, held in its place by a brassy stud. An imitation diamond relieved the discolored area of shirt front, and a heavy brass watch-chain dangled from his unbuttoned vest. His first act, after taking his seat, was to draw a spittoon towards him, and take a huge quid of tobacco, which he chewed heavily while he listened to Chairman Curtin's opening address to him. This expressed the object of the Committee, and its hope that it would get from Mr. Irons, the author of the strike, all the information they wanted as to its cause and extent."

The *Globe-Democrat* gives this report of his attitude during the examination:

"Throughout the entire examination Irons adopted an aggravatingly listless attitude, chewed tobacco incessantly, and expectorated to a degree only to be described as filthy. He spoke in as low a tone as possible, and kept a roll of paper between his teeth so as to make his utterances less intelligible. He was repeatedly requested by Governor Curtin to put it down or let 'some one else hold it' for him, but without avail, and from first to last his answers, such as they were, could only be heard by painful straining."

Irons testified that he is fifty-four years old, was born in Scotland, and could not tell when he came to this country, though he "believed" it was when he was about fourteen. He said that he had been naturalized, but "had no idea of the date," nor did he know whether it was before or after the war; neither did he know who was the first President for whom he voted. He is a machinist by trade, and a rover by disposition, having lived for longer or shorter periods in a dozen cities, from New York to New Orleans and from New Orleans to Sedalia, Mo., where his home now is. He joined the Knights of Labor about a year ago, became Master of his Local Assembly within three months, and a few weeks later was made Chairman of the Executive Board of District Assembly No. 101. In this capacity he is practical dictator over all the thirty subordinate local assemblies, reaching from Missouri down into Texas, with a membership of about 5,000 men, who are bound by oath to obey the orders of the Chairman of the Executive Board.

As to the reason why the strike on the Gould system was ordered, Irons had prepared a written statement, the points of which are thus summarized:

"At the time of Hall's discharge, delegates of the Knights of Labor were at Marshall, Tex., and had just finished a session; and the discharge was regarded as a distinct attack on the order. Witness personally made efforts to get Hall reinstated, but without success. Passes for three were given to Hall, in witness's presence, to take them to Dallas, where grievances and Hall's discharge were to be discussed. But as the board numbered five, and only three passes were given, and as they were handed to Hall and not to him, he regarded the act as another slight on the order, and declined to use them or go to Dallas. He telegraphed to Dallas to that effect, and received no reply. The next day he telegraphed again, and received a message purporting to come from the operator to the effect that Colonel Noble was from home. Witness wired back, unless he had a reply by 2 o'clock the next day, he should call out the men. He received no reply and did call the men out. Seeing it was useless to hope for an adjustment of grievances, he afterward called out the Missouri-Pacific men."

The Committee, however, were not satisfied with so indefinite a statement, and pressed Irons for particulars as to what steps he had taken to secure a settlement before ordering the strike. The examination upon this point was so interesting and important that we quote at some length:

"Mr. Burnes—What were these grievances you speak of?

"Witness—There were the bridgemen's and many other grievances.

"Q. Did any cases of grievance come under your personal knowledge? A. Yes.

"Q. State some. A. I don't remember.

"Q. Give the names of any men who complained to you. A. I don't remember any.

"Q. What were the grievances considered by your executive board when you discussed about calling out the men? A. I don't know.

"Q. Now, Mr. Irons, you knew these men were for eight or nine months suffering from grievances and pointing them out to you. Now, what did you do toward getting these grievances before the officers of the railroad? A. *I didn't present any.* It is not the place of an employee to present his grievances directly before Mr. Hoxie or a high officer. If I were a master mechanic or a yard-master, I should take it as an insult if any man under me took a grievance direct to a general officer.

"Q. Do you mean to tell me that you, as practical head of the organization in this district, allowed a question of etiquette to intervene between you and a head officer? A. If I had reported to Mr. Hoxie, he would have referred me to Mr. Kerrigan, and he would have referred me to some one else.

"Q. Have you complained of any case to Mr. Kerrigan direct? A. Yes, I had one conference with Mr. Kerrigan.

"Q. What about? A. About a man named W. T. New, of Kansas City.

"Q. Well, what of him? A. He was giving away situations to those who gave him the biggest presents and the biggest bribes. Mr. Sibley told me he had investigated the matter, and that there was nothing wrong. So I went to Mr. Kerrigan.

"Q. What did Mr. Kerrigan do? A. The man was discharged.

"*Q. So in the only case you have been to Mr. Kerrigan you got your point? A. Yes.*

"*Q. And you have never brought specific grievances before Mr. Hoxie? A. No.*

"Mr. Parker—What were the words of the order to strike? A. I don't know.

"Q. Now, if this examination is to continue, I must have the best of your recollection of the words of that order. A. Haven't I said I can't remember?

"Q. Please remember this was an order to call out thousands of men. Tell me the wording of it? A. I tell you I can't.

"Q. Did you ever see it in writing? A. I wrote it.

"Q. And yet you can't give any idea as to its length or how it began? A. No.

"Q. Was it sent by telegram or mail? A. I don't know. Some of the assemblies were telegraphed to.

"Q. Where is the order filed? A. I don't know."

As showing what sort of man this dictator is, take these further extracts from the examination:

"Q. How many men went out on the strike? A. About 5,000.

"Q. How many others did it affect? A. I have no idea at all; it is no concern of mine.

"Q. No concern of yours, when you ordered the strike? Now, tell me, to the best of your knowledge. A. I can't.

"Q. Have you any knowledge of the fact that 9,000 men in the lumber business had to stop work on account of your strike? A. No; I don't concern myself with a census of the United States.

"Q. Did the engineers strike? A. No; they were not manly enough to. They gave us reason to believe they would help us, but they turned out too cowardly to do it.

"Q. Did you send out 'missionaries' to persuade men to go out? A. No.

"Q. Did you authorize it? A. I suppose so.

"Q. Now, do you remember when the boycott was ordered on the Wabash? A. No; I suppose I do, though.

"Q. Under what circumstances was it ordered? A. I don't know anything about it.

"Q. Come, come, Mr. Irons, did not your brother officers tell you why the boycott was

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ordered? A. Well, yes. We consider an injury to one in the order an injury to all, and we ordered the boycott because the Wabash men were badly treated and had grievances.

"Q. Did you sanction the boycotting of the Texas and Pacific? Witness replied in the negative, but when pressed said he supposed he did.

"Q. Did you not know with all these thousands of men under you that the freight business really found most of their wages, and that by boycotting the Texas and Pacific freight you were reducing the wage-paying power of the Missouri Pacific? A. (doggedly). The boycott was only requested.

"Q. Did you protest against it? A. Did I protest? No. Why should I?

"Q. But as an intelligent member of your order, what possible good could you hope to effect by the boycott? A. To make them redress grievances.

"Q. Did you not know that the laws of this State compel railroad companies to interchange traffic without discrimination? A. Oh, yes; and also that the charter of the companies compels them to run trains, but does not fix the employees' wages.

"Q. Never mind that now. You admit you were aware that in demanding this boycott you were asking for an unlawful act to be committed? A. I don't know.

"Q. Let me ask you again with reference to this boycotting cars. Do you not realize that the wage-paying powers of the companies depended largely on their freight business? A. *Oh, if I was to stop and study questions like this before ordering a strike, grievances would go unredressed forever.*

"Q. But you recognize the fact that the freighters find most of the money to pay wages. That being so, what right had you to call the men out without giving them notice? A. By the same right which gives the railroad company power to compel you to pay your fare before you enter a car.

"Q. What do you think about labor producing wealth? A. Labor produces everything and capital produces nothing at all.

"Q. So you argue that as God created the world and has a right to manage it, so as labor creates all wealth, it has a right to manage it? A. Yes, with due respect to the rights of others."

This is the way in which the Knights of Labor order a strike. We may hereafter take up the means which they use to make it succeed.

THE CHURCH AND THE LABORER.

Bishop Potter has written a pastoral letter to his clergy on the labor crisis, in which, without going far into the economical side of the case, he comments with much severity on the moral condition of the wealthy class among us as one of the causes of the strange growth of class hatreds on American soil. He says in one place:

"A nation whose wealth and social leadership are in the hands of people who fancy that day after day, like those of old, they can 'sit down to eat and drink and rise up to play,' careless of those who earn the dividends that they spend and pay the rents of the tenement-houses that they own, but too often never visit or inspect, has but one doom before it, and that the worst. We may cover the pages of our statute books with laws regulating strikes, and inflicting severest penalties on those who organize resistance to the individual liberty, whether of employer or workman; we may drill regiments and perfect our police; the safety and welfare of a State is not in these things, it is in the contentment and loyalty of its people. And these come by a different road. When capitalists and employers of labor have forever dismissed the fallacy, which may be true enough in the domain of political economy, but is essentially false in the domain of religion, that labor and the laborer are alike a commodity, to be bought and sold, employed or dismissed, paid or underpaid, as the market shall decree; when the interest of workmen and master shall have been owned by both as one, and the share of the laboring man shall be something more than a mere wage; when the principle of a joint interest, in what is produced, of all the brains and hands that go to produce it is wisely and generously recognized; when the well-being of our fellow-men, their homes and food, their pleasures and their higher moral and spiritual necessities, shall be seen to be matters concerning which we may not dare to say, 'Am I my brother's keeper?' then, but not till then, may we hope to heal those grave social divisions concerning which there need to be among us all, as with Israel of old, 'great searchings of heart.'"

This is all doubtless true, but does it make the way of the employer and laborer any straighter? Many, we were going to say most moralists, who write or speak on the labor problem, seem to assume that the capitalist is always a man in possession of abundant means, with an assured future, complete master of every situation in which he finds himself, and completely free from the anxieties which torment the laborer from the rising to the setting of the sun. But the melancholy fact is, that in modern life the lot of the employer is almost as precarious as that of the laborer. Do clergymen who censure the capitalists for not doing more to lift the laborer up to their own level, realize that 95 per cent. of the men who "go into business," in this country—that is, become employers of labor—become insolvent, and have to begin over again, and continue to fail and try again, until they sink themselves into the rank of the employed, and become dependent on their children or on friends? Do they realize that nine out of every ten strikes for higher wages or shorter hours are made against men who are so absorbed in the terrible problem of meeting their own notes, and thus saving themselves from bankruptcy and their families from want, that it would be impossible for them to bestow a thought on the labor problem were they never so full of sympathy and pity? It is really only among a few large employers, such as the great railroads and great manufacturers, that there exists the security, the abundance of means, and the superfluity of energy and leisure necessary for a strong and persistent effort to lift the laborer, often as he has to be lifted, in spite of himself, out of his present condition of helplessness or dependence.

Industrial life in the modern world is a tremendous battle. It has always been so, but, as in physical warfare, the hosts now engaged are larger and the results more rapid. Too many of our philanthropists talk as if it was a battle in which only the rank and file perished. The truth is that the casualties are even more numerous in proportion among the captains than among the men. The peculiar combination of mental and moral qualities necessary to make successful capitalists—that is, to make a man who can save money, keep it, and add to it—is one of the rarest of human gifts. The proof of this is to be found, not simply in the number of capitalists who fail, but in the small number of cases in which coöperative societies for production have succeeded. They are not more numerous simply because the capitalist qualities are scarce among the laborers as well as among the employers.

We say these things, not in support of a policy of despair, but to remind all those who take up the labor problem, whether in the pulpit or the press, that it will not do to rely too much on the extraction of more talent and virtue from the capitalist class. Taken as a whole that class is, all over the world, at its wits' ends. The rise of the manual laborer, like the rise of every other kind of man, must come in the main from the increase of his own knowledge, and self-control, and sagacity, and self-respect—or, in other words, from the improvement in his own character. This does not mean that nothing can be done either by legislation or philanthropy to improve his condition. But it does mean that all attempts to improve it through increasing his sense of dependence instead of increasing his sense of independence, must end in increasing the evil which they seek to remove. Let us preach profit-sharing; let us preach coöperation; let us call for the curbing of stock-gamblers, and railroad wreckers and bribers, but do not let us treat the laborer as a child, who has to make his way in the world through other people's humanity, and self-sacrifice, and common sense. The United States is a republic of men, each of whom is supposed to stand on his own feet and provide for his own household. Do not let us convert it into a republic of kindly patricians charged with the board, lodging, washing, and amusement of a vast and discontented proletariat.

But Bishop Potter's observations on the prevailing tone of the rich about their riches, of the steady and increasing worship of wealth in this city particularly, no matter how or by whom acquired or how used, and on the moral, economical, and political mischief which it works, will be read with the keenest pleasure by every one who cares for the success of the great American experiment. It is here that our greatest danger lies. The popular hero to-day, whom our young men in cities most admire and would soonest imitate, is neither the saint, the sage, the scholar, the soldier, nor the statesman, but the successful stock-gambler. Stocks and bonds are the commonest of our dinner-table topics. The man we show with most pride to foreigners is the man who has made most millions. Our wisest men are those who can draw the biggest checks; and—what is worst of all—there is a growing tendency to believe that everybody is entitled to whatever he can buy, from the Presidency down to a street-railroad franchise.

THE UNION PACIFIC RAILWAY AND THE GOVERNMENT.

The annual report of the President of the Union Pacific Railway leaves upon the mind of the casual reader the unpleasant impression that the Company is being "worked" in Congress by outside speculators for what they can make out of the fluctuations in its stock, to the disadvantage of both the Government and the Company, and that the reason why no decision can be had upon the debt-funding bill is that that measure would take the Union Pacific out of the reach of strikers and lobbyists. Mr. Adams is careful to say that in his opinion the persons responsible for non-action are not generally aware that they are used as the tools of speculation, but that, being naturally anxious to distinguish themselves, and being under some hostile bias toward corporations in general, and toward subsidized railroads in particular, they are easily led to take the view that whatever is opposed to the interests

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of the Union Pacific must be favorable to the interests of the Government. The truth is precisely the opposite of this theory. The Government, being the holder of a second mortgage on the property, is vitally interested in its prosperity. It stands in the same relation to the Union Pacific that the holders of the junior securities of any other railroad hold to the property in which their money is invested. Any movement intended or calculated to depress the stock of the Union Pacific is calculated also to lessen the value of all the securities, including the Government's lien. Any measure which looks to the improvement of the Company's earning power is quite as much for the interest of the Government as for that of the shareholders.

The Thurman Funding Act has proved unsuccessful inasmuch as it leaves a door open for interminable disputes and unceasing litigation. It was supposed that all questions regarding "net earnings" were settled by a crop of decisions rendered by the Court of Claims in January, 1885. The Company promptly acquiesced in these decisions, foregoing the right of appeal, and paid over the sum of $916,704 to the Government. But scarcely was this done when a claim was set up by the bookkeeper of the Commissioner of Railroads that the accounts of the "aided" part of the Kansas Pacific Railroad had been wrongly kept for a series of years, and also that the subsidy paid by the transcontinental pool to the Pacific Mail Steamship Company, although a part of the disbursements of the Union Pacific Company, was really a part of the "net earnings," of which the Government was entitled to 25 per cent. under the Thurman Act. Of course these claims opened up a vista of fresh litigation without any defined horizon. Shortly before Congress assembled, the bookkeeper of the Commissioner appeared in Boston, armed with instructions from his superior officer, which he was careful to say that he had drawn up himself, to make a very searching investigation of a lot of things that had been investigated many times before. He finished his investigation on the 26th of January. Then he gave out that an order would shortly be issued prohibiting any more payments to the Pacific Mail Company. Then Pacific Mail and Union Pacific stocks fell about ten points each in the market. The evidence that this action on the part of a trusted Government clerk was part of a corrupt speculation was so strong that Secretary Lamar immediately dismissed him from office. Of course the credit of the Union Pacific Company was seriously impaired by the disclosure that it was still open to attacks of this nature, notwithstanding all the pains taken and all the time consumed in settling disputed points in the Court of Claims.

Obviously the only way to put an end to such corrupting influences, alike injurious to the Government and to the Company, is to prescribe a series of fixed payments, in lieu of a percentage of net earnings, to the Government, and then leave the Company free to fight for its existence in competition with other roads which are entering its territory. This plan was first devised by Railroad Commissioner Armstrong. It has been approved by the present Railroad Commissioner, General Joseph E. Johnston, and also by Mr. Lamar when he was Senator. It has been recommended by the Government directors of the Union Pacific Company, and reported favorably by the Senate Judiciary Committee. It must be acquiesced in by every thoughtful and disinterested person who will take the trouble to consider it. The Thurman Act was wise in its time, for it caused the Company to take steps toward securing the eventual payment of the debt due to the Government. Up to that time there had been an uneasy feeling in the public mind that the Company hoped and intended to slip away from this obligation somehow. The Thurman Act set up dams and dykes which have prevented such slipping. It has also made it the Company's interest to provide for Government debt. So far, so good. Now it is no longer a question whether the Company shall pay in good faith what is due, but whether it shall be allowed to earn the money with which to pay. Other companies not hampered by artificial restrictions, not exposed to the attacks of speculators in Washington, are closing around it. The only source of earnings from which the Government can get its debt paid is the business of the country west of the Missouri River. If the Union Pacific loses any considerable part of what it now holds, the Government will lose in the same proportion.

SUGAR BOUNTIES IN EUROPE.

THE bounties on the export of sugar, given by Germany and other countries of the continent of Europe, are among the most curious events in recent financial history. These bounties cost Germany alone several million dollars a year; they are unsettling the sugar trade of the whole world; they are seriously affecting the agriculture of the Continent; they put most perplexing problems before English, French, and German statesmen; and yet they are the result of nothing more than an accident.

The bounties came about as an unexpected result of the German method of taxing beet-sugar. The excise on sugar in Germany is levied by taxing the raw beets. Every metric hundredweight of beets, as it comes to the sugar factory, is charged 1 3-5 marks. That method of levying the tax is adopted both in Germany and Austria, and has a good many advantages. One disadvantage, however, is that the fixing of the drawback on the export of sugar is not easy. The sugar is extracted from the beets, and, if exported, a drawback is given equivalent to the amount of tax paid on the beets from which the sugar is made. Now, in 1869, when the present rate of tax on beets was imposed, about twelve pounds of beets were required to make one pound of sugar. On that basis the drawback was calculated. For every hundredweight of sugar exported there was granted a drawback of twelve times (very nearly, not quite) the tax paid on each hundredweight of beets. The drawback was 18 4-5 marks.

For a number of years after 1869 this arrangement worked well enough, the drawback being practically equivalent, and no more than equivalent, to the tax. But about 1878 a change began to take place. The quantity of beets which was required for making a pound of sugar began to grow less and less. The natural operation of improvements in production was in this direction; and obviously the manner of levying the excise tax strengthened the tendency. In 1878 only 10.75 pounds of beets were needed, on the average of all the German factories, to make one pound of sugar. In recent years the quantity has been:

1882.	10.08	pounds of beets	for one	pound of sugar.
1883.	10.30	do	do	do	do
1884.	9.28	do	do	do	do
1885.	8.96	do	do	do	do

The effect of this change of course was to make the drawback on export no longer equivalent to the tax, but much more than equivalent. The exporter got his drawback as if he had paid an excise tax on twelve pounds of beets; in fact, he paid in 1885 a tax on less than nine pounds of beets. The result was a virtual bounty on export, varying according to the saccharine qualities of the beets. In the last year or two the net bounty has been about one-half cent a pound. And, as it happened, this bounty arose just at the time when the protectionist feeling got the upper hand in Germany, in the years of depression 1877, 1878, and 1879. Consequently, nothing was done to stop it; on the contrary, it was viewed with some complacency.

But as time went on, and the bounty became larger and larger with the increasing yield of sugar from beets, the sugar industry showed the effect of the artificial stimulus. As lately as 1876 the total product of sugar in Germany was not so much as 4,000,000 hundredweight. In 1883 it had risen to more than 8,000,000 hundredweight; in 1885 it was nearly 12,000,000 hundredweight! Of this extraordinary increase the greater part, of course, was exported in order to get the benefit of the bounty. In 1876 the export amounted to no more than 500,000 hundredweight. But in 1885 more than 6,000,000 hundredweight were exported—*i. e.*, more than half the total product of beet sugar in Germany. In 1884 the German taxpayers paid out about $5,000,000 for bounties on this sugar. In 1885 the amount probably was $6,000,000, which represents so much money thrown away by them. Or, rather, the money was given away—given away to the foreign consumers of the exported sugar, who got it for less than the cost of making. These consumers were very largely the English; but the bounty sugar has been sent to all parts of the world. Last year no inconsiderable quantity made its way to the United States. More sugar was, at length, poured out than the world could absorb, even at the reduced price which the bounty made possible. The dividends of sugar factories, which had averaged more than 8 per cent. in the years 1881–83, fell to 3 1-3 per cent. in 1884; while the balance last year was probably a negative one. At present the sugar industry is suffering under the severest depression. Germany has on her hands a large investment of capital and a large aggregation of labor in an industry dependent, for continuance on its present scale, on the bounty. To stop the bounty would mean great loss to the sugar-makers and great suffering to their employees. Yet its continuance means an insufferable waste of money by the German people—a waste more obvious than is generally the case with protective taxes, because it comes in the shape

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of direct money payments out of the Treasury. One or two feeble attempts have been made to devise a remedy, but nothing has been done, and matters remain in the same perplexing state.

But the most remarkable result of the German bounty has been its imitation by France. It is not very strange that Austria should have the same fiscal system as Germany, and should have got the same sort of results from it. But France had taxed her sugar in a different way, taxing the sugar and not the beets, and had been free from these bounty complications. Indeed, she had given up in 1881 a bounty which had resulted from an excessive drawback under the tax system then in force. But the development of the German sugar industry, and more particularly the importation into France of German sugar, was more than the patriotic spirit of the Frenchmen could bear. In their jealousy of their neighbors, they were determined not to be outdone in the sugar fight. So in 1884 they not only put a duty on the import of sugar, which was aimed at keeping out the German product; they also adopted the German system of taxing the raw beets, clapped on an excessive drawback, and entered the field as competitors in selling sugar to the world at large at less than cost. Their net bounty has been calculated to be 11½ francs for the metric hundredweight for this year, when it first becomes effective—that is, it is nearly three times as large as the German bounty. It will be curious to see how long this sorry struggle lasts, and what results will follow from so wasteful a misdirection of industry.

ROYAT IN AUVERGNE.

THE thermal springs of Royat lie at the entrance of a deep valley; they are at an elevation of 1,476 feet above sea level. The hotels overlook the magnificent plain of the Limagne; it would be hard to find a finer view of its sort in France or even in Switzerland; and the valley itself, the Tempe of France, is enchanting.

Nil sub sole novi. This place fascinated the Romans as now it fascinates the modern visitor. Two thousand years ago the Roman world flocked hither for health or pleasure; and the remains of their massive constructions have been successively uncovered during the past sixty or seventy years. The first digging was made in 1822. In the cellar of an old mill near the mouth of the valley of Royat a square well was found, a cold spring playing feebly through the immemorial rubbish of it; red pottery, vases in a gray paste, and some medals of the early Empire were disclosed. The spring was named the Source César, and then was forgotten again for twenty years.

In the winter of 1843 the curé, the Abbé Védrines, and the mayor of Royat were walking in this snow-clad valley, and they remarked that at a certain spot the new-fallen snow instantly melted. What was the cause? Was a little volcano, last of the volcanoes of Auvergne, still plying its works beneath the surface? The mayor, the curé, and the abbé recommended their townsmen to dig. They dug, an undreamed-of innovation; and two metres below the surface they came upon a little warm spring, patient, unchilled, that had kept its little heart of heat alive and beating all these centuries in hope that some kindly hand would come to its resuscitation. They found, too, a Roman *piscina* thirteen feet square, supplied with water at 35° Cent. (95° Fahr.) and a second *piscina* near by, communicating by a tunnel with a vaulted chamber. This was choked with earth and with travertine marbles, while masses of *béton*, formerly pipes for the mineral waters, with capitals, sculptures, and fragments of walls, attested the existence under the Roman Empire of a flourishing bathing establishment upon the site.

The good people of Royat meditated upon these facts for eight years. The question of rehabilitation had been quiescent for eighteen hundred years or so; why should we be in a hurry? But in 1852, after due and proper deliberation, and with that prudent forethought, careful estimate of profits and losses, and solid pecuniary backing which are the usual features of economic enterprises in "frivolous" France, the work of constructing a modern establishment was begun—an establishment that should restore the classical glories of Royat, and replace new *thermæ* upon the ruins of a thousand years.

Never were French common sense and French enthusiasm more happily combined; never have these national traits been better justified in the result of an enterprise. I will not now stop to describe it; it is enough to say that the establishment completed in 1854, a building of two hundred and sixty feet front, is, with its park, casino, and recent additions, one of the finest that I have seen in Auvergne or in France. The construction of the new building led to more than one important discovery. In 1852 there was a find of Gallo-Roman vases and of Samian pottery; during the following year the great "Eugénie" spring, with its yield of 1,000 litres of thermal waters per minute, was rediscovered and released from its subterraneous prisons. In 1876, the Saint-Mart spring was reclaimed; it had flowed away into the Tiretaine River heretofore. The diggers found a well made of framed pine logs, about four feet long; and below this was a leaden supply-tube six inches in diameter, at a depth of twenty feet. This was unhappily cut off short instead of being unearthed, the Mayor and his two friends being absent, it must be supposed, at this point in the proceedings. This construction, though wooden, must have been at least as old as the early fourth century, for medals of the time of Constantine were found in the well. Antiquarians, indeed, have argued that this well and its leaden pipe were of the Celtic period; but I will not enter upon the tormented ground of this discussion, in which even French good nature ran at times the risk of perturbation.

Discoveries thickened as time went on. Two years later, in 1878, the railroad, after creeping all around the mountain quadrilateral of Auvergne, began to extend its *réseaux* toward their fastnesses, as I have described in these columns in writing of La Bourboule. The railway from Bordeaux to Clermont made its pathway across the valley of Royat; and a splendid viaduct was constructed just below the establishment. Each one of the massive piers of this viaduct required very considerable excavations for the foundation; and under the third and fourth piers they found heavy masonry work, with colored marbles and tiles interspersed. The next year a Roman aqueduct was discovered during the construction of a new avenue that was made necessary by the growing prosperity of the place; it was one metre deep by eighty centimetres in breadth, and had conducted the waters of the Eugénie spring to the Gallo-Roman baths. But the crowning discovery was not made until three years later.

In February, 1882, in the present park of the establishment, the gardeners struck a massive wall only three or four feet beneath the flowers. At first they began to demolish it; then, finding it cyclopean in its proportions, authority was given to uncover the ruins. They proved to be the substructions of two immense Gallo-Roman buildings. The marbles of Greece, Italy, Africa, and the Pyrenees had been employed in their construction and ornament—rose, red, red-veined, green-veined, gray-blue, and cipolline marbles, besides white marble in abundance—the same decoration, in short, that was used upon the cyclopean structures that crown the summit of the Puy-de-Dôme—the temples of Mercury and of the Divinity of Augustus—where, also, Greece, Italy, Egypt, and Asia were represented in magnificence of marble and porphyry, especially employed in fine mosaics. Even now the ruins of the thermæ of Royat preserve something of their ancient grandeur. Now wholly uncovered, they occupy the greater part of an area of forty by seventy metres, and the walls are several feet in height. It would be tedious to describe, at least without the aid of plans and pictures, the details which prove the importance and the splendor of this ancient bathing establishment—the *hypocausta*, the *piscinæ*, the pillars, the inscriptions, the cubes of mosaic glass which (when discovered) glowed with the iris-colors of many centuries. One cannot look upon these ruins without feeling anew that the destruction of the Roman civilization was, and still remains, a backward step in human development—a catastrophe by no means made good, as yet, by what we have in its place.

Nothing, indeed, is new under the sun. Two thousand years ago, says the accomplished Dr. Petit, of Royat, "senators, magistrates, orators, consuls were already coming here to cure their ailments, to drink new forces with the pure air of the mountains of Auvergne." The Royat of to-day is not the ancient village; the springs, the pretty park, the splendid hotels, the villas and boarding-houses have almost stolen away the very identity of the little place, further up the valley of the Tiretaine, which bears the ancient name of Royat. The Royat of to-day is a lively and pretty town, standing upon the broken ground at the mouth of the valley of the Tiretaine, musically named and musically flowing, as La Bourboule stands upon the Dordogne; the valley behind it is of all valleys the most musical with running waters of any that I know outside of certain far Pacific island valleys. The sweet springs of Fontanat—the upland village beyond Royat, towards the Puy-de-Dôme—pour down into the Tiretaine, sliding over green slopes of meadow-grass, or breaking up alive from the pathway, as if formed only yesterday, by a hundred runnels, and pouring forth a delicious gelidness. When I saw them, last August, the pedestrian had to change his path constantly to avoid the ablution of these pure waters. Never was there such a land of springs. I would call it the valley of the Dryades were it not so wet. Where the runnels gather themselves into a torrent, you see pre-Adamite water-wheels slowly turning, with the heavy motion of turning planets, in the green ravine, and grinding or not as chance, apparently, directs. Lower down the course of the torrent stand still more ancient overshot wheels, decayed and motionless, tethered with immemorial mosses, and apparently centuries dead; they seem a part of nature, one with the green glade and the singing Tiretaine.

Royat thus stands upon the edge of the wildest and sweetest nature on the one hand, and of a beautiful civilization on the other. Clermont-Ferrand, two miles away, has a grand cathedral, a library, and learned societies. The Puy-de-Dôme, in the opposite direction, with the ruins of twenty centuries, looks down upon one of the most grandiose views in Europe—mountain, river, plain, cities huddling toward the horizon, until, far in the east, the clear air of a winter morning

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will reveal the tops of the higher mountains of Switzerland in their bright array, shining softly in the sunrise like films of gold. Mont Blanc, a little brighter and higher than the rest, appears clearly, one hundred and ninety-three miles away as the eagle flies. The Puy-de-Dôme is the furthest point, so far as I can learn, from which Mont Blanc is visible. I have seen Mont Blanc from the fortifications of Montfaucon in Besançon, a distance of one hundred and three miles, and from the top of the Ballon d'Alsace in the Vosges, one hundred and thirty-eight miles in an air-line; and this latter is, perhaps, the finest *ensemble* of western Switzerland that can be seen anywhere, for all the great summits, from Mt. Blanc to the Matterhorn and Monte Rosa, are there together, vivid in their snows. There is no such view in Switzerland itself, because there is no point in Switzerland that is at once sufficiently elevated and at a comparatively equal distance from the great summits.

TITUS MUNSON COAN.

PUBLIC FEELING IN IRELAND REGARDING MR. GLADSTONE'S BILL.

DUBLIN, May 4, 1886.

THE objections from an Irish point of view to Mr. Gladstone's bill, as it stands, may be brought under three heads: (1) the limited powers vested in the Irish Legislature, (2) the exclusion from the Imperial Parliament, and (3) the financial arrangements.

(1) Among other matters concerning which the Irish Legislature "shall not make laws" is "Trade." In so far as this may mean restrictive legislation on trade intercourse between the islands, or anything like protection for Irish goods, no insuperable objection is probable. But the clause must be fully and clearly defined, or it might complicate almost every legal measure and quite cripple the powers of the Irish Legislature. The same objection holds good as to the fifth of the seven subjects on which "the Irish Legislature shall not make any law"—"Impairing, without either the leave of her Majesty in Council first obtained, or an address presented by the Legislative Body of Ireland, or the consent of the corporation interested, the rights, property, or privileges of any existing corporation incorporated by royal charter or local and general act of Parliament." If this clause mean, or could be interpreted to mean, "the rights, property, or privileges" of all existing railways, carrying companies, and private limited-liability companies, it certainly requires alteration or definition. There is hardly any local act which might not in some way interfere with these "rights, property, or privileges." In the construction of new roads and railways, in the improvement of towns, or the widening and deepening of rivers and harbors, it would be almost impossible to avoid infringing some such "rights, property, and privileges."

(2) There are strong objections on the part of a large body of Irishmen to exclusion from the Imperial Parliament. We have no analogy in modern European history for such a large nationality as Ireland being unrepresented in the family of nations—excluded from consideration in the making of countless laws which she would be bound to obey; deprived wholly of many right which she now in a degree possesses, and in which, according to legal fashion, she has as large a proportionate share as England and Scotland.

(3) The fiscal arrangements of the bill are complicated, and their scope and effect are not easily grasped. They are the clauses in the consideration of which the Irish party will probably find itself weakest. As yet no member has shown himself fully qualified to deal with such problems; but the party has so unexpectedly developed aptitudes and powers in so many other directions that on this also it may prove equal to the occasion. The main objection to this portion of the measure has been strikingly brought out by the *Statist*, in an article entitled "Whiskey the Arbiter of Home Rule." The stability of Irish credit would depend mainly upon the permanence of the revenue at present derived from the excise duties on spirits, paid in Ireland. Spirits can be moved freely in bond from Ireland to England, and the duty paid in either country. The *Statist* sums up its argument as follows:

"We arrive, therefore, at this remarkable result—that of the maximum amount of £6,180,000 which may possibly be received in respect of customs and excise, no less than £5,380,000 odd will be deducted for imperial first charges before a penny can be paid into the Irish Exchequer to help to carry on the business of the country. The net proceeds to Ireland from customs and excise would appear, therefore, to be at most £800,000; and remembering what we have pointed out as to the probable transference of duty payments from Ireland to England, it seems unsafe to reckon upon anything solid from these sources in aid of Irish taxation. Indeed, it might conceivably happen that in the event of all the £1,100,000 of whiskey duty belonging to England and Scotland, but paid in Ireland, being transferred to the consuming instead of the producing country—as in strict equity should be the case—Ireland, so far from deriving any pecuniary advantage from the imperial control of the customs or excise, would find that it had to pay as permanent fixed charges £300,000 more than those imposts produced."

This article has been widely copied into Irish papers, and has attracted considerable attention. The dangers it indicates are not the greatest that might arise from this dependence of the stability of Irish credit on the excise: it might most seriously interfere with the progress of temperance and the moral and material advancement of Ireland. If whiskey became one of the "institutions" of the country, as slavery was in America, its opponents would be denounced as anti-Irish and anti-national. Proclivities to drink, in human nature, are sufficient everywhere—we are by no means exempt from them in Ireland. It would indeed be unfortunate for the consumption of whiskey to be considered patriotic.

Our anti-National, and till lately ascendancy party—mainly Protestant—never felt more bitterly than at present. To their previous contempt for and distrust of the mass of their countrymen, is added their indignation at being, as they consider, betrayed. The defection of Mr. Gladstone, Mr. Childers, and some others might be borne—there was, to most Conservatives at least, nothing surprising in that. That Earl Spencer, "the firm and gentle"—their ideal next to Cromwell—should advocate home rule, is a blow the sting of which is intolerable. Considerable spirit is shown by the Conservative class in adhering to their opinions and prejudices, despite the changes which they must recognize as imminent here in one form or another. It might at least appear prudent for them to keep their opinions to themselves, to temporize, or try to make terms. But no; they seem determined to hold out till the very moment the doors of the Parliament House in College Green are opened. This sustained hostile attitude is a real evil. It will obstruct and delay the fusion which is inevitable.

Protestantism in the north is showing itself peculiarly sectional and selfish in demanding that, if their coreligionists in the rest of Ireland be sacrificed, at least Ulster must be saved—or at least the three counties in Ulster where Protestantism is undoubtedly in the majority, and where, nevertheless, the Catholics form one-third of the population. Eyes flash and voices vibrate at the possible indignity of having to submit to laws made by Papists in that centre of national iniquity, Dublin. There is little use in opposing such sentiments with reason. Protestants form the fourth of the population of Ireland. They are likely to have their full share in the representation; and let the success of the Irish party at Westminster be an earnest of what a Protestant party in College Green could achieve if real wrongs gave it cohesion. Did Irish Protestantism but realize the situation, many of those considered the extremest Nationalists would not be averse to some arrangement through which, by proportional representation or otherwise, the Protestant minority scattered over Ireland would be fully represented in proportion to its numbers. In any case, Irish Protestantism in an Irish Legislature will be much more powerful for right than ever it has been since the Union. Appeals based on justice and on argument cannot permanently be silenced or set aside; one grain of reason and truth will ultimately outweigh whole windbags of false economics and inflated rhetoric.

The most virulent opposition to the bill, then, comes from the Irish Conservative party, who in one breath demand a reversion to Cromwellian statesmanship, with the total disfranchisement of Ireland, and decry the proposed measure as dishonoring and degrading to Ireland and to Irishmen. Many who profess to believe that they will be driven out of the country through the action of this legislation, openly declare that they would prefer and will indeed strive for separation. "I used to be called a rebel," remarked to me the other day a Protestant clergyman, an old and tried Nationalist; "but now when I talk to these fellows I find that I am the loyal man and that they are the rebels." The Radical anti-Nationalists are angry because Nationalists will not join them in denunciation of the bill on account of its "double order" and other clauses which appear contrary to their democratic ideas. Irish Nationalists, as a rule, are not *radicals* in the British acceptation of the term, and as long as their nationality is conserved, they are likely to prove more really conservative than their opponents.

Nationalists are not inclined to be led into any general or severe criticism of the bill at its present stage. They believe that their leaders and representatives will secure as much as possible for them—that they will finally agree to nothing dishonorable or dishonoring to Ireland. They have confidence in Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues, who now recognize the justice of their claims and suggest remedial measures. In so far as the bill would give circumscribed powers, Irishmen generally believe that they will so work those circumscribed powers as to gain the confidence of all sections of their countrymen and of the British people, and to secure additional prerogatives. The power which representation in the Imperial Parliament would give the Irish minority to impede and nullify the process of amalgamation in Ireland, might be attended with many and grave dangers. There is now in Ireland no real extended love for the Empire at large or interest in its affairs. We may hope that responsibility in an Irish Parliament will lead to a reversal of this feeling and a genuine desire for participation in the affairs of the Empire at large—a desire which could then be gratified in one form or another. The tactics of the opponents of Irish self-government are directed to wreck the bill, to destroy the hope of a speedy settlement, to adjourn the contest as much as possible, and to discount the chances of Mr. Gladstone's health failing. Nationalists are not inclined to fall in with these plans, or to indulge in any very severe and open criticism of the clauses of the bill until its principle has been affirmed by the second reading.

—Since writing the foregoing, Mr. Gladstone's lofty and touching manifesto has appeared, and Earl Spencer has made another noble speech in

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favor of home rule. It is difficult to avoid a feeling of bewilderment at seeing all that the mass of Irish Nationalists ever contended for advocated by such men. Truly the ultimate success of no cause need be despaired of that is based on common sense and justice. D. B.

MYKENÆ AND TIRYNS REVISITED.

ATHENS, April 20.

SOME of the readers of the *Nation* may remember that I wrote some years ago from here, impeaching the antiquity of the inhumations discovered by Schliemann at Mykenæ, on the ground that the construction of the tumulus (for such it must be considered) was patently of later date than the classical Mykenæ destroyed B. C. 468. Returning to Athens after a long interval and after new discoveries by Schliemann of the same character as those at Mykenæ, I profited by the recent visit of Mr. Penrose, the celebrated architectural archæologist (whose discovery of the system of curvatures in the Greek temples has connected his name imperishably with the noblest works of Greek architecture, and whose elaborate studies into the remains of all known Greek structures have given him an authority probably higher than that of any other living man in this branch of archæology), to revisit Mykenæ and Tiryns in his company. We were accompanied also by Dr. Sterrett and Mr. Lewis of the American school.

We went carefully over Mykenæ, and on the most thorough review of all the indications which had led to my previous conclusions, and the evidence afforded by structural character alone, Penrose decidedly rejected any pretension of the tomb to be of greater antiquity than the Macedonian epoch; and I believe that an intelligent examination of the structure, which remains substantially as found—only trivial and immaterial restorations having been made by the Greek Archæological Society—will confirm in any scientific mind this conclusion, and will certainly show that there can by no possibility be any relation to the heroic epoch in it, much less to that prehistoric epoch to which the original Mykenæ belongs.

We subsequently visited Tiryns and examined Schliemann's prehistoric palace, which Mr. Penrose unhesitatingly pronounced of a late barbarism, even subsequent to the tombs at Mykenæ, and probably not earlier than the first century B. C. We did not then know the objects found in the ruins at Tiryns, and now preserved at Athens, so that there was nothing to point out more precisely the epoch to which this structure belonged; but the mixture of sawn stone, cut stone, rude burnt bricks, with rubble and stones taken from the ancient city, determined its character as semi-barbarous, and subsequent to all good Greek work. To avoid repetition, I will give further on the details of the evidence, over which I went again a week later in company with some friends from Oxford, Hellenists and students of archæology, and one of whom, Mr. Pelham, had made an especial study of prehistoric monuments. This visit not only confirmed the conclusions which Penrose and myself had agreed in, but gave more definiteness in some respects, owing to Mr. Pelham's criticisms.

In my previous study of the Mykenæ tombs, I had come to the conclusion that the partition walls between the circular substructure and the ancient wall of the city were contemporary with the circle, and had been constructed as buttresses to support the latter, which is of rough broken stone, laid without cement of any kind. These partition walls, being in part composed of débris of the archaic and of the classical Mykenæ, are indisputably marked as post-classic, being later than the destruction of Mykenæ by the Argives. Mr. Pelham pointed out certain details which are almost absolutely conclusive of the priority of these partition walls to the inhumation, and that the tomb was an intrusion into a mass of habitations rudely raised by some poor tribe who had profited by the massive walls of Mykenæ to construct a refuge there—perhaps only temporarily, because their walls were flimsy, and would not have stood long alone. No mortar was used, so far as we can now see, and the stone was mostly merely broken masses, the exceptions being material from the older walls. This explains what had always puzzled me before—viz., the rude houses which lie beyond the monument, and which, being of the same construction as the partition or supposed buttress wall, I had been troubled to connect satisfactorily with the tombs. The history of this series of works, therefore, is in brief as follows:

Mykenæ, the city, with its still remaining circuit of walls, the Lion Gate, the postern gate, and the so-called Treasury of Atreus, are of the polished stone period; traces of remains of the classical period being shown in the pilasters which had been placed in the front of the "Treasury" entrance and the second tomb—clearly a late imitation of the greater one. Then came the ruin of the city by Argos, and its abandonment for centuries, probably, and the refuge here of some poor people who were content to build a hamlet of rude stone habitations in the so-called Agora, or space which was left between the ancient Acropolis and the outer wall, there being no trace of such habitations found on the Acropolis hill. I conjecture that these houses had been already again abandoned, when there came a barbarian tribe who chose this sheltered enclosure to construct a huge tomb for the interment of several of their own number, probably a chief and other important people, perhaps in single, perhaps by successive burials; the remains of one (that which Schliemann identified with Agamemnon) being pronounced, I understand, to be those of a woman. To effect this interment the ground was excavated to the rock, demolishing in part the houses there, and the circle of stone raised round the graves so as to form a common tomb, and on this was reared a circle of flat stones, something after the manner of a druidical circle, which Pelham pronounces substantially the same in plan as the Celtic remains at Carnac. In some part of this were erected the barbarously ornamented stelas now in the Patissia Museum at Athens, and which again entirely correspond with similar stones from the Celtic tumuli in France to be seen at the Museum of St. Germain-en-Laye. All the evidence of the locality goes to confirm my original theory, that this was a Celtic interment of the period of the barbarian invasions stimulated by Pyrrhus.

The examination of Tiryns is even more convincing to any one who is acquainted with the archæology of architecture. The conclusion is inevitable that this series of buildings or building which Schliemann has called a prehistoric palace, is not the first but the last occupation of the site. This appears from the facts that while the construction which figures so imposingly on the plan of Dr. Schliemann's book is based on the débris of a former construction, there was no layer of later débris over it, and that the stones of which it is constructed are sometimes taken from the early Tiryns, sometimes masses of limestone sawed and drilled with a metallic tubular drill, such as does not occur until the later classical times. Moreover, the most massive blocks, which are sawn marble not finished from the saw marks or in any way polished, bind in with rubble and rude bricks well burned, the whole held together by superfluous abundance of a poor mortar. The bases of the prehistoric columns of Schliemann are simply rudely cut bases of a style which would induce the opinion that they were Byzantine without the remains of Byzantine chapels and graves, which could not be ignored in the plan, but are in the Doctor's conclusions and theory; without reference, too, to the fragments of Byzantine pottery of a late epoch—it may be as late even as the tenth or eleventh century A. D. Dr. Sterrett finds in the whole ruin the exact character of the early Turkish work found in numerous localities in Asia Minor, and would have classed it as Turkish if he had come across it in the Asiatic provinces. But the pottery is unmistakably glazed and painted earthenware, of a coarse quality, with the brilliancy of the glaze perfectly preserved, and with the usual Byzantine allegorical animals. There was no object of distinctly high antiquity found, and the painting on the wall, which is so carefully copied in the illustrations of the Doctor's book, is simply barbarous wall-painting done on a very gross and perishable plaster, with nothing archaic in it except its rudeness. The Greek official who is at the head of the department of excavations and archæology, had little or no doubt of the ruin being Byzantine, and if we had seen him before we went to the site, we might have saved ourselves a period of perplexity, for when once it was suggested that it was Byzantine the difficulties cleared up rapidly. A late Byzantine occupation, and the construction of a palace or series of houses on the ruins of the citadel of Tiryns, account for everything that was found, and no other hypothesis will.

Dr. Schliemann has carefully refrained from exploring the débris on which part of the palace was built, or he would have been unable to sustain his theory. As it is, how any man with the least experience in prehistoric work could have conceived that this belonged to it, I cannot understand, for the barbarism and comparative modernness of it *sautent aux yeux*. Schliemann's theory and treatment of the subject are simply stupefying, and this was the impression of every one of us—seven in number.

W. J. STILLMAN.

Correspondence.

JOHN HARVARD: FURTHER NOTES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have reason to know that considerable interest has been excited by my letter which was printed in the *Nation* of March 4 (*ante*, p. 191), and therefore you will perhaps permit me to revert to the subject with which more particularly its last paragraph is occupied, and to say a few words on another subject.

The register of Emmanuel College is a compilation of the last century, and is, therefore, of quite secondary interest in relation to John Harvard, but I find elsewhere contemporary evidence of what in his time his own college looked upon as the main point to be recorded on admission. In 1634 Richard Newell, and in 1638 William Maxey, on migrating from Emmanuel to another college, took with them testimonials in the customary form, from which I cite so much as suffices for my purpose:

(December 16, 1634.) "These are to certify . . . that Richard Newell, borne in the county of Hartford, was admitted . . ."

(May 12, 1638.) "These are to certify . . . that William Maxey, borne in the county of Suffolke, now batchelour in arts, was admitted . . ."

These documents, issued as they necessarily were after reference to the register, speak for themselves.

I desire to enlarge somewhat upon the political

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position of the borough of Southwark, or, in city language, of the Ward of Bridge-Without, not as defined in legal documents, but as coming to the surface and appearing to the inhabitants in every-day affairs in John Harvard's time; and for this purpose I will avail myself of original papers of his date remaining in the archives of the Corporation of London.

In 1608 the Justices of the County of Surrey assessed, for a certain purpose, the carmen of the city residing in Southwark, together with other inhabitants of the borough—that is to say, treated them as inhabitants of the county over which they had jurisdiction. The Lord Mayor, being informed, wrote at once to the Board of Green Cloth complaining, and stating in so many words, that "the Borough of Southwark had never been taken for any part of the County of Surrey." In 1611 we have another matter which in principle was similar. The same Justices had appointed a meeting in the Borough of Southwark for the purpose of administering the Oath of Allegiance to the inhabitants, but again the Lord Mayor was equal to the occasion. He intimated to the Justices that he would see to the business, and that they were not to expect the appearance before them of persons who dwelt within the government of the city. And in 1624 we find something in connection with the home original of what was a necessary adjunct to every New England village, the training-field. The inhabitants of Bridge-Without, finding themselves summoned to Croydon to be mustered with the inhabitants of the County of Surrey, contrary to ancient custom, which had been recognized by Secretary Walsingham in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, sought the aid of the city, with the result that an Order in Council was issued directing that they should be mustered by the city, as formerly, and not with the county. Matters such as these, continually occurring, subjects of common talk, with results patent to all, brought home to the dweller in Bridge-Without, in a very intelligible manner, that he belonged to the great city of London just as much as the dweller in Cheapside.

It is to be hoped that the American, be he who he may, who in due course will collect and arrange the materials for the biography of a great worthy, may take, as he easily can, those means which will prevent his falling into the irritating blunders which, to a greater or smaller degree, mar all that has been written on your side of the Atlantic concerning the English period of John Harvard's life, since the present discussion began. I have noted a want of acquaintance with forms of expression in common use during the seventeenth century, and even an evident inability to read the handwriting of that age. Passing by this matter, I will notice two points only, out of very many calling for remark, in the latest writing which has reached me from the United States, and which comes from the Massachusetts Cambridge. The author, recalling that in a legal document John Harvard is styled "clarke," tells us that "this fortunate clause" establishes "that he was a man of learning," and adds, "it is impossible to say whether he had received orders in England." Indeed! Why, "clarke" is the very word which settles the question—the very word which for many centuries has alone been used in all formal instruments to describe a man in holy orders. This same gentleman, I see, discards the words given *ante*, page 297—"power being reserved, . . . come to seek it"—in favor of a translation of his own, the result being what I dare say he little supposes. Let me tell him that those words are the identical words which, ever since English has been the language of the courts, have been used as the equivalent of the Latin formula which he reprints. It is with some difficulty, if at all, things of this kind can be excused, because they may be avoided without any. Z.

CAMBRIDGE, ENGLAND, May 7, 1886.

FREE LABOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A moment's reflection is sufficient to convince any employer that, other things being equal, a free moral agent is worth more to him as an employee than a man who has bound himself to quit work, without knowing why and however much against his will, whenever some self-important, worthless "walking delegate" makes his appearance and snaps his fingers, or otherwise signals for him to do so. Workmen of average intelligence applying for employment cannot fail to understand that such is the case.

Were employers generally to act upon this, and, in taking new men into their employment, pay those who have retained their independence more than they pay those who have surrendered it, such a course would do much to render organizations binding their members to become like so many cattle, unpopular with the workingmen and in the community. It may be suggested that employers would be likely to be deceived. Very possibly. But when workingmen hesitate to acknowledge that they belong to such organizations, the end thereof is near at hand.

GEORGE B. UPHAM.

BOSTON, May 15, 1886.

REMEDIES FOR BOYCOTTING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The recent strikes have given thinking people a very forcible suggestion of the dangers to be apprehended from the laboring classes when under the leadership of ignorant and unprincipled men. If the law-abiding portion of the community will lay this experience to heart and *act* upon it, our troubles will not have been in vain. There are two points to which special attention should be given:

1. The arm of the law must be strengthened.

We must have legislation explicit enough to cover every possible case of interference with a man's natural and constitutional right to go about his lawful business unmolested. The penalties attached to the violation of such laws should be very severe. The man who steals my month's wages after it is earned, is not half so dangerous an enemy to society as the man who robs me of my right to earn it. In Missouri we are glad to see the announcement made in the most influential paper in the State, that every candidate for the Legislature will be interrogated in writing, as soon as nominated, as to his willingness to support a law defining and punishing the crime of boycotting. This is a move in the right direction, and should be actively taken up in other States; but it must be earnest and aggressive, for its very suggestion will put within the reach of demagogues a larger purchasable vote than ever before. The Knights of Labor will soon be playing an important part in politics—let no one deceive himself as to that. We have already been treated to the disgusting spectacle of a Congressional Committee deferentially requesting an ignorant inciter of riots to suggest changes in the Federal Constitution. When Congressional committees show themselves ready to compound with the confessed enemies of law and order for their continuance in office, it is time to drop mere questions of party out of sight, and do a little energetic work for the preservation of liberty. The formation of Law and Order Leagues is a good movement, always providing that they do not allow the excitement of the moment to draw them *outside* the law.

2. Something must be done to infuse among the masses some knowledge of the cardinal principles of economics.

The prevalent opinion that these principles are too abstruse to be comprehended by any but educated people, is unfounded. Professor Jevons, in his 'Primer of Political Economy,' gave ample demonstration that the most important elements of the science can be stated in a manner both interesting and easy to comprehend. The child in the public schools or the laboring man of ordinary intelligence who could not understand the teachings of this little work, is the exception and not the rule. When the seed of the economic heresies held by such men as Powderly, George, and Gunton falls into soil entirely unoccupied by the truth, we can expect nothing else than a disastrous harvest. We are not unaware of the difficulties in the way of having political economy properly taught in our public schools. The baneful influence of protectionism stands ready as yet to destroy a large proportion of the good which might be done in that direction. A great deal may be done, however, by private effort in the way of circulating literature and organizing local associations for the study of such questions. Every little helps. W. J.

STATE MILITIA FOR STATE DISTURBANCES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is not to be wondered at that the War of the Rebellion left us with an exaggerated sense of nationality as against State rights, and an undue contempt for militia as against regular troops—two sentiments which find expression in Mr. Bumstead's communication of April 29. But the framers of the Constitution, who made the States an integral part of our national system, and carefully provided for a militia, did not build upon the experience or for the needs of a single generation. And however it may be in Illinois, we of Wisconsin have no reason to wish these things otherwise than as they are. The independent action (not *sovereignty*) of the States, and "the necessity of a well-regulated militia to the security of a free State," have been amply vindicated by these events. With militia—and with regulars no less—everything depends upon how they are handled. We were so fortunate as to have, in the two most important positions at this juncture, men of nerve, sound judgment, and promptness of action—Governor Rusk and Adjutant-General Chapman. Both of these hastened to the scene of disturbance, summoned the militia (which was in an excellent condition of discipline and morale), and, by one volley of musketry and a few well-directed cavalry dashes, quelled the riot so effectually that the police was able to do the rest. I am old-fashioned enough to believe that this way of dealing with a mob promises better for the future of free institutions than if there had been a detachment of Federal troops stationed at Milwaukee.

W. F. ALLEN.

MADISON, May 8, 1886.

THE FAULTY TEACHING OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Allow me to add my testimony to that of your correspondent in the *Nation* of May 6th, as to the present imperfect system of teaching English grammar. Is it not a system which slights the inculcation of the universal laws of language (the main object, one would suppose, of the study of grammar), while at the same time the accidents, the differentiations, of English speech are so magnified as to give an altogether misleading idea of their relative importance; in fact, to treat them as laws, rather than as the exceptional

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variations which they really are? There is nothing which proves that the present method of teaching English grammar is bad, more surely than the general dislike and apathy of the children toward the study, while there is nothing more certain than that this dislike and apathy disappears as soon as the students are made to comprehend something of the general laws of language, which they can hardly do from the mass of irrelevancies with which most of our so-called English grammars teem. Every one who has had a common-school education, followed by a thorough classical course, will bear witness to the fact that it was this latter course which finally cleared up the whole subject of grammar, if it ever has been made clear to him, and which gave him a comprehensive view of the whole field of language-study.

Your correspondent's strictures on the usual treatment by English grammarians of the subjunctive, of the cases, of the adjectives—he might have added, of the much abused and misunderstood tenses—are justified. The writers of our present English school grammars would seem, from all indications, to have been conversant with only the English tongue, and not to have had a very scientific acquaintance even with that. A disciple of Bopp, or Corssen, say, ought to be capable of explaining on general principles to the English student the use of the subjunctive mode in his own vernacular, and would instinctively avoid the vicious subdivision complained of; and so a thorough student of the strictly logical tense system of the Greek verb should be able to make clear to the ordinary scholar the equally logical English verb. Certainly there is better reason for subdividing the imperfect tense of the English verb, with its "was having, had, did have," than for the division of the subjunctive which your correspondent so justly criticises.

The study of English grammar, as at present pursued in our public schools, is almost useless to all students, and entirely so to those who intend to take a subsequent classical course. The writer has found by sad experience in tutoring that the work of the schools has virtually to be undone before the student can be made to comprehend the broad principles of the laws of speech, and thus, and thus only, become prepared to overcome with comparative ease the difficulties of Latin and Greek. This general condemnation of the study as practised in our schools is justified also by facts derived from a considerable experience in the examination of teachers for the public-school service—these would-be teachers being themselves the product of the common-school system. In ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, the applicant's "knowledge" of English grammar has consisted in the memorizing of a set of idiotic rules, and in a system of pettifogging parsing which alone would be sufficient to hide from his view the logic of language, and which rendered him entirely unable to cope with questions based on general laws. It would seem that there might be a grammar devised which should make these general laws the prominent and essential feature, leaving to a subordinate part or treatise the explanation of idiomatic variations.

Conscientious educators could do no better service to the cause than, in general committee, to revise the whole subject, and, among other evils, to correct the absurd and uncertain grammatical nomenclature, which every upstart grammarian thinks it his special province to remodel. Let us call the grammatical spade a spade, in whatever language it is encountered.

C. T. Williams.

Kent, Ohio, May 13, 1886.

DAISIES AND DAISIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A marked illustration of the misleading power of a pleasant association when it fastens on the name of a thing instead of on the thing itself, may be found in the very general use among us—and the warm defence of such use, by many people—of the name daisy for the common white flower of our fields. It is a lamentable mistake, for this reason, that knowledge of the true daisy so dear to English poets is confused by such familiarity with its name. The intelligent comprehension of all the exquisite allusions to the daisy in English literature must pass from American readers if they permit themselves to suppose that the (so-called) ox-eyed daisy, the whiteweed, is the same with the true daisy. It is quite another genus, and its character, its charm (I should be the last to deny that it has its own charm) is of an entirely other quality. Its free and somewhat flaunting growth is in direct contrast to the humbleness of the little turf-loving daisy, which, as Burns says,

"Scarce rears above the Parent-earth
Its tender form."

The chief delightfulness of the whiteweed springs from childish memories, from such associations as give poetry to the buttercup: it has the delightfulness of commonness.

Commonness is also one of the special glories of the daisy: it is "nature's favorite." It is so dear to the heart partly because it is so widespread a gladness in its own fields; but they are the fields of Europe, not of America, that rejoice in it. It is consecrated to Americans only by literary associations deepened by foreign travel. In Europe it grows everywhere, from Iceland to the extreme south; in the United States it is not to be found. Its special and perfect home is an English lawn—the little circlets stud the sward as with embroidery; but it is companionable also with the wild grass of hilltops and of brooksides. Pastures and meadows here are adorned—more abundantly than the farmer likes—with our whiteweed; but do we like it on our lawns?

But let us not compare the two at all. I only wish to bring forward some of the descriptions of the English daisy by English poets, which make it impossible for any reader of them to speak of the American daisy and the English by the same name—a fact of which the majority of young Americans seem to me to be singularly ignorant. Yet one would think that for women at least (with whom the love of flowers is usually instinctive), whatever their other enforced studies, the first "elective" and the last would always be the study of English poetry. And one would think that Chaucer would not be unknown to them—the most ardent lover of the daisy—and that they would read once and again his 'Legende of Goode Women'; and that even once reading it they would never forget the enchanting praise of the daisy in the lines beginning

"Of alle the floures in the mede
Thanne love I most thise floures white and rede
Suche as men callen daysyes in our toune."

"White and *rede*"; it is there that lies one of the lovelinesses of the daisy, in the red tips and red underneathness of its petals. "Daisies pied"; how much of the delicate color of the picture is lost to those who do not recognize the force of the epithet in the heavenly verse—

"When Daisies pied and Violets blue,
And Lady-smocks all silver-white,
And Cuckoo-buds of yellow hue
Do paint the meadows with delight."

Wordsworth not only compares the daisy to

"A queen in crown of rubies drest,"

but goes so far as to speak of her "crimson head" in a verse I will return to in a moment. But it is Burns who, with his characteristic felicity of touch, has painted the daisy in an immortal line,

"Wee, modest, crimson-tipped flower."

Those epithets, once heard and appreciated, become one's very thought of the flower as completely as Shakspere's "violets dim."

In a pleasant little paper on the daisy by the Rev. H. N. Ellacombe, of Gloucestershire, published as an appendix to his 'Plant-lore of Shakespeare,' I find he mentions as one of its chief charms the fact that "there is scarcely a day in the whole year in which you might not find a daisy in flower"; and it is this which Wordsworth dwells on for a moment in one of his many "addresses" to the daisy:

"When soothed awhile by milder airs
Thee Winter in the garland wears
That thinly shades his few gray hairs;
Spring cannot shun thee;
While Summer fields are thine by right,
And Autumn, melancholy wight,
Doth in thy crimson head delight
When rains are on thee."

Another of the attributes of the daisy—"the bright daye's eyes," as Ben Jonson called them—its closing at sunset, is prettily described in a verse quoted by Mr. Ellacombe from Clare, a peasant poet of nice powers of observation:

"Now the blue fog creeps along,
And the birds forget their song;
Flowers now sleep within their hoods;
Daisies button into buds."

For the love of English poetry, may I not entreat every reader of the *Nation* never again to call ox-eyed daisies "daisies" *unqualifiedly*? I fear it would be considered going to an extreme to urge the courageously honest use of the name whiteweed! We are the more bound to do so because it is our own American name, unknown, I believe, in England, whence the plant came to us as a weed. But who would ever think of calling the daisy a weed?

* *

THE UNIVERSITY SYSTEM AT THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the present communication I wish to supplement my letter on the elective system, which you published in the *Nation* of May 13, by some account of our method of dealing with the question of marks and of voluntary attendance on college exercises, and more particularly by a description of our so-called "university system."

The first two topics can be dismissed quite briefly. As to marks for recitations and rank in class, they are practically unknown to us. Doubtless each instructor in a general way forms an estimate of the relative proficiency of his pupils, but the official record preserves nothing beyond the results of examinations. On the completion of a study the student is reported to the Faculty as passed, conditioned, or not passed. If passed, he receives a credit that counts toward graduation; if conditioned, he is allowed a year in which to make up the deficiency; but if he fails to do so within that time, he is treated as not passed, which means that his work in that study counts for nothing, and that he must do it over again in class before he can get credit. Attendance at recitations is to this extent voluntary, viz., that no specific penalty attaches to any single absence, nor is there any graduated system of penalties for repeated absence. But it must not be inferred from this that either Faculty or students regard it as immaterial whether attendance is regular or not. A student absent from recitation follows custom and the unwritten law by making prompt explanation to his instructor. If in any case a tendency to excessive absence is noticed, the matter is reported to the Faculty, and steps are at once taken to remedy the evil. It would be pretty nearly true to say that at Ann Arbor the relation of theory and practice is almost the direct opposite of that criticised by the Harvard Committee in the report alluded to in my former letter, when they say: "In theory students are not permitted to absent themselves

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from recitations except in a very limited way. Practically, in the judgment of your committee, there is in this respect the largest latitude."

In giving to the public a short story of our experience with the university system, I may say at the outset that my main object is simply to show the direction our efforts have taken in the search for a solution of an important problem in education. I do not propose to discuss the comparative merits of different systems. Our credit system allows a student to earn his degree by completing a specified amount of work, measured by full courses of study or by hours of weekly attendance. Under the university system the obtaining of a degree depends only in part on the number of full courses standing to one's credit; in addition to any credits he may have, the candidate is obliged to pass a special final examination, before a committee of the Faculty, on certain specified topics to which he has devoted at least a year and a-half of study. It is evident that the new system, though carried on side by side with the old, is adapted only for the more mature students —those who are already well grounded in the studies usually called disciplinary, who have some well-defined aim in view, and who wish to pursue special lines of work further than would ordinarily be practicable in connection with the courses of study offered to large classes. It is, in a word, a scheme to promote specialization in cases where specialization seems likely to prove profitable to the student. Premature entrance on university methods of study, as contrasted with college methods, is guarded against by providing that the privileges of the system shall not be open to any student until he has completed at least two years of his college course, and has completed all or nearly all the courses included in the set of studies prescribed for the degree he seeks.

The first public announcement of the requirements for graduation on this plan appeared in the calendar for 1882-83. It was at that time provided that students working on the new system would "not be held to the completion of a fixed number of courses," but would have to "take an amount of work approved by the Faculty," and leave the question of degree to depend on the result of an examination to be held at the end of their period of study. For the work done, no credits like those earned on the old system were obtainable. Students were encouraged, even while following instruction given in the classroom, to carry on, under the supervision of the Faculty, independent and original researches in broader fields. In the calendar for 1883-84 it was more explicitly stated that students at work on the university system would have to pursue "three distinct lines of study, one major study and two minor studies." The following combinations, taken from the schedule of examinations held in the spring of 1884, indicate the character of the groups that were approved, the major study standing first in order in each group; 1, Electricity, Analytical Chemistry, Mechanics; 2, Greek, Latin, German; 3, English Literature, Political Economy, Finance; 4, History of the United States from 1789 to 1860, Political Economy, International Law; 5, Philosophy, English Literature, German. Twelve students took their first degrees on that system in 1884.

In its practical working, the system, as above described, though it clearly furnished a valuable stimulus to those who worked under it, and was an efficient agent in securing a high grade of scholarship and mental training, did not prove attractive to so large a number of students as its more earnest advocates had hoped it would, nor, indeed, to the majority of those whose attainments were such as to fit them for work of the character contemplated. At the beginning of his third year in college, a student, with two roads before him leading to the same degree, can easily bring himself to believe that, by a judicious choice of studies, he can secure on the credit system the chief advantages to be derived from the other system, and at the same time spare himself the ordeal of the final examination, and avoid the risk of staking all his hopes on the issue of a single day. The student's reasoning, it may be granted, has some force; and possibly it is too early yet to expect, or even to desire, that many members of any college class will care to devote as much as one-half of their college career to specialties. During the present year, therefore, the Faculty has so far amended its regulations as to permit the studies designated as minors to be pursued, under prescribed conditions, on the credit system, the final examination being confined to the major study alone. It remains to be seen what the effect of this modification will be.

In the foregoing description, attention has been directed to the university system chiefly as a method of undergraduate study. In its application to post-graduate work, its success from the start has been more decided. It was under this system that Miss Lucy M. Salmon, for instance, while studying here for her degree of master of arts, prepared a thesis on the History of the Appointing Power of the President, which was afterwards published, probably with some additions, as one of the papers of the American Historical Association. The paper received favorable notice in the *Nation* of April 8.

W. H. PETTEE.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, May 17, 1886.

"I AM BUT MAD NORTH-NORTH-WEST."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me a brief space to make an inquiry as to this singular speech of *Hamlet* ('Hamlet,' II. 2). The explanation of "handsaw" as a corrupt dialectic form for heron, and Mr. Heath's note that "the expression obviously refers to the sport of hawking."; that with a northerly wind the heron would fly toward the south, and the spectator would consequently have the sun in his eyes: that with a southerly wind the heron flying north could be easily distinguished from the hawk by the spectator, who would then have the sun at his back, is a good explanation as far as it goes; to the extent, namely, that *Hamlet's* wildness came on him only with a northwest wind, or, dropping the metaphor, came from one source alone and did not extend to other matters. Such, at least, is the impression which he means to convey to *Guildenstern* and *Rosencrantz*.

What was this source of his trouble? Does he mean to refer to the guilty love-making of the King and the Queen; and was there a notion afloat among Shakspere's contemporaries that a *northerly* wind was any more a love-wind, or any less, than a *southerly* wind? Two passages in Chaucer seem to suggest something of the kind. In his 'Parlament of Foules' (ll. 113-119, ed. Lounsbury), Chaucer has this invocation to Venus:

> "Cytherea, thou blysful lad, swete!
> That with thy firbrond dauntist whom thou lest,
> And madist me this sweuene for to mete,
> Be thou myn help in this, for thou mayst best!
> As wisly as I saw the *north-north-west*,
> When I began my sweuene for to write
> So gif me myght to ryme and ek tendyte."

Further on in the poem (ll. 260-280), he describes the place where he found Venus, whom, he says, he "saw *north-north-west*"! It is to be observed that Priapus is the last classical personage (ll. 253-259) whom he passes before reaching Venus, and that Diana is the next one mentioned (l. 281).

Again, in 'The Knightes Tale' (ll. 1045-1055, ed. Morris), Chaucer describes the temple erected by Theseus as having an altar to Venus in the east, one to Diana in the north, and one to Mars in the west. The following fancy suggests itself in this connection:

Venus and Mars are extremes, but extremes which meet, lawfully at the altar of Diana in the north, or unlawfully elsewhere; but they meet. So that a "north-north-west" love meeting might be both an *illicit* love meeting and a *bloody* one, not under the influence of the chaste Diana, but brought about by the murderous god of war: and so *Hamlet* would be thinking of the "most seeming, virtuous queen," his mother, and the "incestuous, murderous, damned Dane," his uncle; and so the Queen's conscience-stricken guess as to the cause of *Hamlet's* "distemper"—

> "I doubt, it is no other but the main:
> His father's death and our o'erhasty marriage"—

would be the opinion which *Hamlet* expects and desires her to entertain.

Now is there in Chaucer, or in Shakspere elsewhere, or in their contemporary literature, any traditional foundation for the northwest being a source of illicit love? Could Shakspere have found any such notion in Boccaccio, or in Dante, supposing him to have known Dante's writings? Evil and evil spirits come from the north, it seems; and, according to some of the critics, Milton makes his Satan come from hell gates on the north, past the pavilion of Chaos, the "anarch old," to our universe in the south. This mediæval idea of the local source of wickedness may be contained in *Hamlet's* queer definition of the kind of madness he was suffering from.

I hope some one having access to a good library will pursue the subject, fanciful though it be.

—Respectfully, W. T. T.

HOLLINS, VA., May 7, 1886.

Notes.

TICKNOR & CO., Boston, publish immediately 'The Saunterer,' by Chas. Goodrich Whiting; 'The Familiar Letters of Peppermint Perkins'; and 'Red-Nosed Frost,' a metrical translation from the Russian of N. A. Nekrasoff.

'Plutarch's Lives,' edited by Edwin Ginn, will be added in July by Ginn & Co. to their "Classics for Children."

'Southern California' is the title of a new work by Mr. T. S. Van Dyke, author of 'The Still Hunter,' to be published shortly by Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

A new volume of poems by Mr. Charles G. Fall, of Boston, is now passing through the press.

The Caxton Book Concern, limited, will publish a volume of poems by Mr. John Grosvenor Wilson, author of the well-known play, "Nordeck."

Henry Holt & Co. are about to publish Hugh Conway's last novel, 'Living or Dead.'

A Scottish History Society has been founded, with the Earl of Rosebery for President. Its object is the discovery and printing of unpublished documents illustrative of the civil, religious, and social history of Scotland. The annual subscription is one guinea. Lord Dalhousie has offered to throw open his archives.

The literature of the Browning societies is enriched by a second and revised edition of Mrs. Sutherland Orr's 'Handbook to the Works of Robert Browning' (Scribner & Welford). The aim of the writer is merely to group the poems and to condense or describe their contents in prose, with no attempt at criticism. To the student of Mr. Browning's works as a whole the service is a considerable one, and the analysis of his philosophy and apprehension of his poetic attitude which underlie the classification are just. The dates of publication in the case of each poem are given—a great help to the systematic study of his career; and there are a number of passages which would find their proper place as notes in an

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edition of the poems, inasmuch as they clear up details. No one should expect to find the volume a means of avoiding the difficulty of the thought or the obscurity of its expression in the works themselves. It does not make Browning "easy"; but, at least, it starts one in the right direction and gives him his bearings. The revision of the first edition consists of minor corrections, slight changes of arrangement, and some expansion of the prose paraphrase in the case of the darker verses.

Another contribution to the same literature is Mrs. Caroline H. Dall's pamphlet, "Sordello: a *History and a Poem*" (*Boston*: Roberts Bros.). This is a résumé from the original sources of the biography of Sordello, and an account of the career made up from these by the imagination of Browning for his hero. It is well done. The first part is faithful and clear, and reproduces the various versions of the real Sordello's life with painstaking accuracy and fulness; the second part is a reduction of the facts of Browning's story, and serves as a kind of "argument" for the poem. The æsthetic philosophy of "Sordello" is slightly touched, and seems to have lain outside the author's purpose. The obscurity of the sequence of events and the relations of the characters in "Sordello" is, however, the least of its darkness; its power of expression bears about the same relation to poetry as the sounds ejaculated by a person born deaf do to speech.

From Scribner & Welford we have half-a-dozen of the later issues in the Bohn series: a new edition of Hazlitt's 'Spirit of the Age,' edited by his son, W. Carew Hazlitt; the 'Letters of Charles Lamb,' by the same editor, in two volumes; a new volume of 'Miscellanies, Æsthetic and Literary,' from the remains of S. T. Coleridge; a handy 'History of Philosophy, for the Use of Students,' by Ernest Belfort Bax; and the second volume (an illustrated glossary) of Fairholt's 'Costume in England to the End of the Eighteenth Century.' The four volumes first mentioned have a relationship in time, and might all claim a place in any "gentleman's library." Still, the elder Hazlitt's 'Spirit of the Age' has become almost unreadable, in spite of the interest yet attaching to many of the subjects of his characterizations. Mr. Justice Talfourd's similar attempt at portraiture of his contemporaries, in writing a life of Lamb to accompany his select correspondence, is also barely tolerable, but his services in elucidating the letters outweigh the distastefulness of his lumbering style, and the want of that *esprit* which so shines in Lamb. Mr. W. C. Hazlitt has none too much of it either, but, thanks to him, we now possess in one volume the two compilations made by Talfourd—an economy of shelf-room as meritorious as the making two blades of grass grow where one grew before. He has done more than unite—he has edited, annotated, and corrected. The Coleridge volume, of which Mr. T. Ashe is the competent editor, contains sundry essays on the Fine Arts and on the "Prometheus" of Æschylus; fragments and notes, mainly from the lectures of 1818 (on the Middle Ages, Cervantes, Wit and Humor, Dante, Mythology, Style); with numerous miscellaneous pieces and notes on books and authors, ending with the essay on the Theory of Life. In this heterogeneous collection one will find all sides of Coleridge's mind.

Harper & Bros. give a fresh career to Prof. Richard T. Ely's 'French and German Socialism in Modern Times' by bringing it out in their Handy Series.

Lieut. W. H. Jaques's elaborate monograph on the 'Establishment of Steel Gun Factories in the United States,' abounding in plates, well fulfils the author's intention "to provide a book of easy reference to the details of the manufacture of modern ordnance." It appeared as No. 4 in the tenth volume of the Proceedings of the U. S. Naval Institute at Annapolis.

Scott's 'Lady of the Lake,' 'Selections from the Table-Talk of Martin Luther,' and Bacon's 'Wisdom of the Ancients and New Atlantis,' are the latest numbers of Cassell's National Library, edited by Prof. Henry Morley.

That the Adirondacks have survived in popular favor the extravagant laudation that has been poured over them as an earthly paradise, shows their substantial merit. In the long run, exuberant, undeserved encomium is as damning as faint praise. The East is much blessed in having such a sanitarium at its doors, for it is a sanitarium of the first order, as well as a hunting park for men who cannot go to more distant and wilder regions. Dr. J. W. Stickler has edited and compiled a little book, 'The Adirondacks as a Health Resort' (Putnams), which resembles a composite photograph in that many minds are seen in the picture it makes of this haven of health. Many contributors have recorded their experiences, as they understood them. Some of these are authorities of the highest kind, who speak for classes; others tell briefly of the health found for themselves. The book is a good guide for health-seekers there, and, with its encouragement and its cautions, may be studied profitably by the not-too-ill invalid. The combination on which health is to be restored is abundant fresh air, good food, and freedom from care. The Adirondacks have no monopoly of these, but they are well supplied. The last chapter is the most useful in describing a sanitarium that has been established at Saranac Lake, under the best auspices for those possessing neither poverty nor riches.

'Food Materials and Their Adulterations,' by Ellen H. Richards (Boston: Estes & Lauriat), is a sedate compilation of much practical interest for all who set a table. The author lifts the general subject of comestibles to a very high plane, and opens a wide field for domestic missionaries, by starting out with the premise that "the health and the morals of a people depend mainly upon the food they eat and the homes they live in." She has arranged various scattered facts so as to point out the way over an important but imperfectly known region. The general tenor of the book is not such as to attract the lovers of light reading nor to satisfy the hungry seeker after all the facts, but it is a good manual for schools and the intelligent housewife. Perhaps more stress might be laid before a domestic constituency upon the possibility of harm in canned food from the chloride of zinc which is displacing the older and innocent rosin flux. It is mentioned, but is not emphasized. Such expressions as "when money is plentiful and gold at par," and "when gold was two dollars or more" (pp. 20,21) show that the author's views on political are not as clear as they are on domestic economy.

'Coast Defences against Asiatic Cholera' is a report to the Illinois State Board of Health by its Secretary, Dr. J. H. Rauch, on the subject of Quarantine. It is an excellent compilation of the quarantine organizations in actual use along the seaboard, and Dr. Rauch believes that if proper vigilance and thoroughness are exercised, the foreign disease may be excluded. But constant vigilance and the promptest action are essential. It is more probable, if the European epidemic keep alive, that occasional cases will pass the cordon; but if the local authorities do all that is required of them, there is little to be feared from these. The special value of the pamphlet is its convenient grouping of the defensive agencies now in operation by the local and national authorities of the United States and Canada.

The *Revue Scientifique* gives some interesting statistics bearing on the comparative healthiness of two systems of dealing with nightsoil. In Brussels the mortality from typhoid fever had reached 105 in 100,000 in 1870–71; but when the *fosse* or cesspool was given up it fell at once to 40, and for the ten years it has not exceeded 30. In Frankfort it was 89, but when closets connecting with sewers were introduced in 1870 it fell to 29. In Berlin it declined from the same cause from 50 to 28. In London the change is of older date, having begun in 1819 and been completed in 1848. The result is a mortality from typhoid of 26 and from diphtheria of 18, while Paris reports 70 and 75 respectively. No wonder the "capital of civilization" makes so bad a show; there are still 70,000 cesspools in it, many of them in the cellars of the houses, fermenting and poisoning the air. This is chiefly in the poor and populous districts at the north and northeast. In other quarters a better practice is obtaining. Some 700 miles of sewers are already constructed (discharging into the Seine 395,000 cubic metres of sewage daily), and 300 more are promised. When all is done, no doubt we shall hear of a fall in the death rate which will effect the object aimed at by the gratuitous education of every seventh child—the repopulation of France.

Exceptionally interesting is the April number of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*, which opens with a sketch and a portrait of Col. Lambert Cadwalader, of Revolutionary distinction. The lively journal of Miss Sally Wister is concluded, and will be missed. *From the inedited journal of Dr. John Morgan*, one of the founders of systematic medical education in this country, is given a curious account of a visit to Voltaire at Ferney in 1764. Noticeable in this is Voltaire's more than tolerable English, which he dexterously used in praise of Newton, Locke, Bolingbroke, and English free institutions. Likewise heretofore unpublished is a document proving the corporate existence and government of Philadelphia prior to the charter of 1701. Finally, we may mention a genealogical sketch of the late Gen. W. S. Hancock, whose paternal line is unknown beyond his grandfather, a seaman.

Gen. W. F. Smith's second and concluding article on the battle of Shiloh is the most significant article in the May *Magazine of American History*. It is essentially a vindication of General Buell against the generalship of Grant and Sherman.

There is not much to remark in *L'Art* for April 15 (Macmillan), unless it be the suggestive discourse—a beginning—on "La Montagne et le Paysage," by Pierre Gauthiez. But in the *Courrier de l'Art* for April 16, one must notice the criticism of G. Dargenty on the late Paul Baudry as an artist, apropos of an exhibition of his works. Baudry is denied either ideality or heart; is said to have fallen, as between two stools, in being equally drawn toward the antique and toward the modern; to have been a digester of masters, but not one himself—"un grand artiste, non pas."

We cannot judge of the likeness in the large lithographic portrait of Pasteur sent us by Parke, Davis & Co., Detroit, Mich. The head is at all events a striking one.

The principle of the well-known Game of Authors has been applied to Mythology, Roman and Greek, in a pretty set of cards published by the Chautauqua Press, 117 Franklin St., Boston. There are illustrations of certain divinities, but the ground of selection is not obvious, and many of the omissions seem strange. Nor are the accents of the proper names always accurate.

The abolitionists of Brazil, undaunted by the reaction manifested at the last elections, are renewing their attacks on the decaying but still powerful system of slavery. Foremost among them is of course Sr. Joaquim Nabuco, who edits

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a popular, tract-like *Propaganda Liberal*, of which four issues have reached us. The essay, which forms the body of each number is succeeded by a "Registo Politico," from which one may derive much information concerning the course of events and the state of parties on the main question. The office of the *Propaganda Liberal* is Rua da Quitanda 19, Rio Janeiro. Sr. Nabuco is also announced as the editor of a new Liberal Democratic organ, to be called *O Seculo*. We commend these publications to any one who wishes to combine a study of the Portuguese with the intellectual and moral gratification which Sr. Nabuco's writings always afford.

On the 25th of August next Professor Eduard Zeller, of Berlin, attains the fiftieth anniversary of his doctorate. His friends and admirers propose to commemorate the event by presenting to him on that day a bust of himself, with the names and addresses of all who contribute anything to the gift. A committee has already been formed, including such names as Bunsen, Bruns, Erdmann, Kuno Fischer, v. Hase, Helmholtz, Mommsen, Max Müller, v. Sybel, Vischer, and other leaders of European science and scholarship. To give Zeller's American admirers an opportunity of joining in the celebration, an American committee has been formed, consisting of Mr. Carl Schurz, 175 West Fifty-eighth Street, New York; President Barnard, Columbia College, New York; Prof. Geo. H. Palmer, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.; Prof. Geo. S. Morris, Michigan University, Ann Arbor; Prof. G. Stanley Hall, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore; and Prof. J. G. Schurman, 15 West Fifty-seventh Street, New York. The Committee believe they will have the support of educated men and women all over the country, and especially of those who have found a guide to the speculation and science of the ancient world in Zeller's classic 'History of Greek Philosophy.' They ask all who are interested in the success of the celebration to bring the matter to the notice of their friends. It is very desirable that not only a fair subscription, but a large number of names should be sent from America. A list of names and addresses (but *not* of contributions) will be handed over to Zeller, and it is known that the American names will be especially gratifying to him. Contributions will be thankfully received and acknowledged by any member of the Committee, and any further information may be obtained from Professor Schurman.

—Teachers are very apt to believe that methods which they have tried with success in their own classrooms will be good for all other classrooms, whereas the success is often due to the men and not to the methods; and the good results that Profs. Smith and Blackwell have gained from their 'Parallel Syntax Chart of Latin, Greek, French, English, and German, based on the logical analysis' (Ginn & Co.), will not infallibly repeat themselves in other hands. Apart from a number of typographical errors and other infelicities—all which will doubtless be rectified in subsequent editions—the method pursued is useful only for the most elementary stage, and, if kept up, will do more harm than good unless checked by the influence of the teacher. Boys and girls trained in the logical analysis are very likely to write Latin and Greek, French and German exercises that shall have every virtue except that of being endurable; and, as it is, many a sensitive teacher gnashes his teeth at sentences which conform to every principle of syntax and shock every feeling for style. The acquisition of a foreign language is only to a certain extent a matter of science; and though science is steadily encroaching on the domain of art, and reducing what seems floating fancy to fixed formula, still, phrasing will always be a potent element, and deeper study will reveal under that phrasing a national conception that shall seriously diminish the value of parallelisms of syntax drawn from "the logical analysis." The gaps in one language as compared with another are often more significant than the correspondences. But, after making all deductions and limitations, no one can regret that the authors of the chart, who are experienced and skilful teachers, have put an instrument that they have found so effective themselves within the reach of others. Only we must add that sharp revision seems to be needed—better examples, more accurate perspective.

—Mr. Benn, in an admirable paper in *Mind*, defends the theory that the history of the world is and will be a history of progress, against Sir Henry Maine, who maintains, in 'Popular Government,' that improvement is a merely local and temporary phenomenon. He shows that the burden of proof has, in these days, been shifted to the other side; the law of improvement has become no mere empirical generalization, but a necessary consequence of simpler laws. For, even supposing that there is no inherent tendency to improvement in the various forms of life, individual and associated, it is plain, from the Darwinian point of view, that those forms which enjoy some accidental superiority multiply at the expense of the less favored, and eventually supplant them. And now that the process of universal evolution has become, so to speak, conscious of itself, it is quite possible to hope not only that the agencies which have been at work in the past will continue in operation, but also that, by being understood and artificially stimulated, their rate of operation may be indefinitely accelerated. Sir H. Maine is led to a different conclusion by attributing great power to habit and to the unpopularity of change. Progress, whatever else it means, means change, and change, according to him, runs against the grain of average human nature, even continuing to be unacceptable for some considerable time after its introduction. This is proved by the repulsion excited by bad manners, and by the conservatism of Oriental races and of women in all countries. Mr. Benn points out that change itself may become a habit, as we see in the case of those excursions to the seaside or the mountains annually undertaken by whole families at the cost of much temporary inconvenience; that dislike of bad manners has a very different origin, as is proved by the fact that good manners are not at all offensive to the ill-bred; and that the proposition that women retard the progress of civilization is purely fictitious. The evidence offered for this intensity of female conservatism, he says, is such as to make us doubt its existence; "for a cause which so powerful a logician can defend by no stronger arguments than are here adduced must be weak indeed. Apart from the commonplaces of the subject, most stress is laid on two considerations: the constancy of women, as evinced among other authorities by English fiction, and the character of that fiction itself. The first argument is entirely beside the question, for constancy is a virtue even more necessary to the friends than to the foes of progress, and just as likely to be exercised on its behalf. . . . A more astounding assertion has seldom been made" than that English fiction, which is "ever more written by women and read by increasing multitudes of women," is inseparably wedded to old-fashioned ideas. "Considered as an art, English fiction has passed since the beginning of the century through various stages of evolution, involving vast and continuous changes in the choice of subjects, in the mode of treatment, in the underlying conception of life; while in this evolution at least two women have played a decisive part. Besides this movement of its own, English fiction has reflected every other contemporary movement, practical or speculative, the ambition of the most recent writers being to reproduce with photographic fidelity every tendency of the time."

—The objection that the frequent change of fashion in women's dress is inconsistent with the theory that they are absolutely intolerant of innovation, Sir H. Maine meets by saying that new fashions are merely revivals of old ones, and that some of the Tanagra figurines are draped in a fashion resembling that of the present day. Mr. Benn points out that this is a vicious circle, and that, if it were not, most—if not all—of the radical measures now proposed have their parallels in ancient history, so that, on the Tanagra-figurine principle, they ought to be secure from feminine opposition. He reminds the reader that the sewing machine has silently and swiftly accomplished a revolution in domestic affairs, and that no woman has been known to oppose it on the ground of her aversion to change. He concludes that progress has not been shown by Sir Henry Maine to be insecure, for, however great a power may be attributed to the conservatism of women, the inference would still remain irresistible, that since civilization has advanced so far without their help, or even in spite of their opposition, and, what is more, has compelled them to follow, it will be able to pursue its onward course in the future as it has done in the past.

—From B. Westermann & Co. we have received a number of more or less interesting publications on Jewish subjects. Three are biographical. Of these the most readable is Dr. Adolph Kohut's 'Moses Mendelssohn und seine Familie' (Dresden and Leipzig, 1886), prepared for the hundredth anniversary of the death of "the Jewish Socrates," January 4, 1886. It condenses in an agreeable manner, and with a great deal of enthusiasm, many characteristic traits and much piquant matter culled from the writings of the Mendelssohns themselves, from Hensel's large work on 'Die Familie Mendelssohn,' Kayserling's biography of the philosopher, E. Devrient's 'Erinnerungen' of his grandson the composer, Raich's 'Dorothea von Schlegel' (the philosopher's daughter), Ludwig Geiger's 'Geschichte der Juden in Berlin,' and other books. Dr. Zimmels's 'Leo Hebræus, ein jüdischer Philosoph der Renaissance' (Breslau, 1886) is an extensive and drily learned treatise on the "life, works, and doctrines" of Judah Leo, eldest son of the famous Don Isaac Abarbanel (or Abravanel), who, on the expulsion of the Jews from Spain and Portugal, settled with his father in Italy, and there wrote his once so popular 'Dialoghi di Amore' (Rome, 1535), composed in a Platonic vein, and other writings. In a note we find the interesting particular—already communicated to us, some years ago, by Dr. S. Adler, of this city—that metric evidence afforded by several Hebrew poems of Don Isaac shows that at least the original form of the name of the family was the formerly general Abarbanel, and not the lately preferred Abravanel. Dr. M. H. Friedländer's 'Geschichtsbilder aus der nachtalmudischen Zeit' (Brünn, 1885) contains sketches of Jewish scholars of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries, and is to be followed by another *Heft*—which will complete the brief volume—containing biographical notices of celebrities of the latter half of the eighteenth and of the nineteenth century. It is characteristic of the process of evolution in modern Judaism that the author of this popular "Familienbuch," who officiates as a rabbi, has no hesitation in including among his Jewish "Geistesheroen" that great apostate from the faith of Israel, Baruch Spinoza. According to Prof. Rohling, of the University of Prague, who

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has been carrying on an envenomed crusade against Jews, Judaism, and especially the Talmud, for a decade and a half, the Socratic philosopher who was Lessing's model for his 'Nathan der Weise,' Don Isaac Abarbanel, the trusted minister of Catholic kings, and (with the exception of Spinoza) all the heroes of Friedländer's 'Geschichtsbilder,' must have been, as true "Talmud Jews," sworn deadly enemies of the human race, and particularly anxious to destroy Christian happiness and lives. For such is Prof. Rohling's view of the Talmud and its followers, a view defended by quotations from its contents and other rabbinical writings, so maliciously commented upon, distorted, and garbled, and in some instances forged, that the author (who, by the by, glorifies the Inquisition and abhors Luther, Calvin, and free-thinkers almost as much as Talmudists) has been very freely branded as a "liar" by such Protestant authorities as Franz Delitzsch. These attacks he endeavored to parry by repetitions and fresh garblings; but when Dr. Bloch, a rabbi and member of the Austrian Reichsrath, denounced him in the *Wiener Allgemeine Zeitung* as a liar, forger, libeller, and perjurer, using among others the words, "The Professor of Hebrew Antiquities at Prague carries on lying as a trade," he sued him for defamation. The result was a protracted criminal suit before the jury of Vienna in 1884, in which Christian professors of Austrian and German universities acted as experts in Hebrew and Talmudical lore. The plaintiff was doomed to ignominious defeat, but forestalled it by dropping the prosecution. The counsel for defence, Dr. Joseph Kopp, a Christian member of the Reichsrath, subsequently summed up the conclusions to be drawn from the investigation of mixed anti-Talmudic and anti-Semitic charges in a volume entitled 'Zur Judenfrage nach den Akten des Prozesses Rohling-Bloch' (2d ed., Vienna, 1886). The book evinces serious study and reflection and a philosophical grasp of the question, but it is very painful reading.

A MISLEADING BOOK ON RAILWAYS.

The Railways and the Republic. By James F. Hudson. Harper & Brothers. 1886.

THIS book is likely to do harm. Not that it is by any means devoid of merit; but its merits are of a kind to render it all the more dangerous. Of certain phases of the railroad question the author writes with knowledge and ability. Of other phases, equally important, he has no knowledge at all, and seems hardly to suspect their existence. The result is, a brilliant treatise on railroads as viewed from a newspaper office by a man who has some familiarity with legislative investigations and judicial decisions, but none whatever with practical railroad business or the principles which underlie it. His presentation of abuses and dangers is clear and forcible; but the explanations which he gives are often unsatisfactory, while his remedy is one which has proved impracticable in the past, and would be sufficient to upset the business of the country if seriously applied at present.

The great evil in American railroad management at the present day is the existence of irresponsible power in the hands of a few men, which enables them to make arbitrary differences in charge. These differences, or "discriminations," are often given in favor of those who least need or least deserve them. The all-important problem for the community is, to find some means of checking this abuse; and if it can find the means, it will apply it and ought to apply it. The demand of some of the railroad men that they should be left to manage their own private business in their own way cannot be tolerated for a moment. It is not their own private business, it is a public duty as common carriers which they are performing. In consideration of this public character they have been allowed to take land under the right of eminent domain. Having used the right, they must accept the obligation. The last vestige of doubt on the subject was removed by the Granger decisions of the United States Supreme Court, which asserted the right to regulate railroads on other grounds besides the one just given.

All this Mr. Hudson presents forcibly. He shows the abuses of discrimination, as illustrated in the Hepburn Committee testimony and in the history of the Standard Oil Company. He also shows the fallacy in the attempt to excuse the railroads from their public obligations. But in his attempt to show how these abuses have arisen he is less successful. He lays too much stress on the arbitrary action of individuals, and fails to see that this action is the result of natural laws which have affected the railroad system in nearly the same way all over the world. The American railroad system is not the creature of Vanderbilt or Scott, Jay Gould or Albert Fink; it is far truer to say that Vanderbilt, Scott, Gould, and Fink are creatures of the railroad system, each in his own way. Business has developed in such a manner as to bring men of certain types to the front; the men have done something to modify its course, but would have been powerless to alter its general direction.

Here is where Mr. Hudson makes his first great mistake. He attributes many things to the arbitrary purposes of individuals, when they are really due to the necessities of railroad business, and are carried out in much the same way by the state roads of Germany or Belgium as by the private roads of Vanderbilt or Gould. Take the matter of pooling as an instance. Mr. Hudson opposes it strongly. He believes it to be an agency for doing away with that healthful action of free competition which would result in basing rates on cost of service. When met by the fact that railroad competition, wherever it exists actively, brings rates *below* cost of service, he attributes this to the arbitrary action of railroad managers, who wish to force rival roads into a combination. In so doing, he falls into errors of fact.

"It may be shown," he says, "that every railway war which has carried rates below cost clearly arose, not from competition, but from the effort to compel combinations or agreements which would end it. The first railway war that reduced freights from Chicago below cost of service was waged to force the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad to abandon its differential rate from that city to Baltimore; the last one was a struggle to crush or prevent competition in the local traffic of the New York Central and Pennsylvania Railroad."

He is obviously unaware of the fact that in August, 1869, five years before the Baltimore and Ohio completed its Chicago route, freight rates from Chicago to New York were nearly as low as they ever have been since, and, in proportion to cost of service, decidedly lower. Nor does he see what would have been the result if the New York Central had refused to wage its competitive fight with the West Shore. The West Shore was making rates below cost of service. The New York Central was forced either to follow suit or to lose its business. Undoubtedly its managers felt that the harder it fought the sooner the fight would be over; but a policy such as Mr. Hudson would have had it adopt, refusing to carry at ruinous rates, would have been out of the question. So large a part of the expenses of a railroad are independent of the volume of traffic, that business at any price is often better than no business at all.

The effect of active railroad competition generally is to place the more conservative roads at the mercy of the more reckless ones. The disgraceful contracts of the railroads with the Standard Oil Company were not due to the system of pooling, as Mr. Hudson alleges, but to the irregular warfare between the railroads of which the Standard Oil Company was able to take advantage at every turn. Had a pooling system existed in 1873 it is not probable that the Standard Oil Company could have risen to its present dominant position. The organization of the Eastbound pool had the direct and immediate effect of breaking up the "Evener" system which had been doing for the cattle business what the Standard did for oil; but the oil monopoly was too firmly established to be broken up in this way.

Our courts at first assumed that free competition would be the best means of regulating railroad charges. Not merely in the United States, but everywhere else, this proved to be a mistake. It was gradually recognized, in various parts of the world, that this theory could not be completely carried out; and it is hardly too much to say that the growth of really effective control has coincided with the gradual abandonment of this theory. The United States has held to the principle longest—with what results, we all know. Within the last few years there have been signs that the courts are beginning to take more practical ground, insisting upon results rather than theories. But this movement has only just begun, and there is serious danger that Mr. Hudson's book may do something to retard it. The author not merely insists upon free competition, but he goes one step further back, and would have us treat the railroad as a public highway. Not mere competition between railroads, but competition of many carriers on the same line of railroad, is the result which he proposes.

The idea is as old as the railroad system itself. It was embodied in the early charters of England and Prussia, and, with some modifications, in parts of the United States. It is hard to find a place where it was completely carried out for any length of time; but there have been many attempts to recognize the principle to some extent, the most notable being those in England in 1854 and in some parts of Germany in 1872. In connection with this last attempt there was very active discussion; and a work by Richter ('Das Transport-Unwesen auf den Eisenbahnen Deutschlands.' Frankfort, 1872) took almost exactly the ground occupied by Mr. Hudson, though the latter obviously is quite unaware of its existence. In spite of the fact that the system has never succeeded in practice, Mr. Hudson says so much in its favor that it is worth while to notice some of the difficulties which he overlooks. There are some others which he mentions; but his lack of knowledge of the detail of railroad business leads him to overlook the most serious ones. We may grant, for the sake of argument, what he says about the possibility of overcoming the technical difficulties of train-despatching for a number of clamorous train-owners; we may admit, to the utmost, his view of the legal rights in the case, yet we shall be far from having surmounted the chief obstacle to the plan, which Mr. Hudson calmly waves out of sight. "The question of tolls," he says, "presents little practical difficulty." As a matter of fact, the difficulties are enormous. A great deal of the low-grade or long-distance traffic of the railroads could not by any means pay its share of the fixed charges. This was realized even under the old canal system, where the tolls were frequently graded according to the quality and value of the goods. The author calculates as a fair toll for the Chicago and Northwestern Railroad, 0.774 cents per ton per mile. For Nebraska or Dakota wheat this would mean 15 or 20 cents a bushel to Chicago, *besides carrier's charge*—a prohibitory rate. But if you cut off that part of the tonnage, you would have to increase the toll, because the smaller volume of business would no

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longer pay fixed charges at the old toll. This again would cut off more business, forcing a further increase of tolls; and so on indefinitely. It may be that Mr. Hudson would have the railroads themselves carry the low-grade traffic, and leave outsiders the privilege of carrying the manufactured goods, etc., which pay the higher rates. If this plan were tried, it would mean a simple repetition of the experience of Wisconsin in the Granger movement. The reduction of rates on profitable traffic to the level of the long-distance or low-class rate left nothing to pay interest or even maintenance.

We cannot follow out this matter as it deserves; but let it be noticed, as a further illustration, that if it were applied to the passenger business, commutation would be impossible. This is obvious; and in the freight business a somewhat similar result, though not equally obvious, would be equally unavoidable. If the tolls were fixed, there would be no object in making extremely low rates to increase the volume of traffic. It is to the railroad company as a track owner, not as a carrier, that the increase in volume of business brings profit. If some one else owns the track, the carrier loses his chief incentive to offer low rates; nor will any competition which you are likely to secure make up for the loss of this stimulus.

AN ENGLISHMAN'S HISTORY OF MUSIC.

A General History of Music, from the Infancy of the Greek Drama to the Present Period. By W. S. Rockstro. Scribner & Welford. 1886. Pp. 535.

REFERENCE has been repeatedly made in these columns to an odd peculiarity of the average English writer on music, as revealed especially in Grove's otherwise excellent 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians,' which contains articles by almost all the leading English musicians and critics. The majority of them seem to be brimful of knowledge regarding everything that ever happened in the musical world up to twenty or thirty years ago; but beyond that their minds appear to be complete *tabulæ rasæ*. Thus Mr. Rockstro, in the volume now before us, gives a very learned enumeration of various histories and dictionaries of music, beginning with 1647 and taking in Burney and Hawkins, Fétis, Kiesewetter, Ambros, and Mendel, but forgetting to mention the more recent and more readable histories by Brendel, Dommer, Nohl, and others. Then we are told deliberately that "there is indeed no volume of moderate size, embodying the entire history of music, available at the present moment to the English reader," although Dr. Ritter has edited such a work, which, though less extensive than Rockstro's, much better observes the principle of giving honor to whom honor is due.

The merits of Mr. Rockstro's History are that it is written in a very clear, concise style, and that the author's erudition insures almost absolute accuracy in the statement of facts and dates. With the technical intricacies of notation and composition he is so thoroughly familiar that even those who have made no special study of harmony, counterpoint, and fugue may see at a glance wherein lay the differences and changes of style in the music of various epochs. What could be clearer and more incisive, for instance, than his brief description of Monteverde's epoch-making invention—the employment of unprepared discords: "Every one knows that the only discords permitted in strict counterpoint are those of transition and suspension. The introduction of those of a fundamental nature, employed by direct percussion, destroyed the school of Palestrina at a blow. . . . And unprepared discords are ineffably beautiful. Without these, passionate utterance in music would be impossible; instrumental accompaniments would be too weak for effective employment; and the musical drama would degenerate into a vulgar caricature." Very readable also is the chapter on Gluck and the absurdly artificial rules which degraded opera to the level of art for the artist's sake in those days. And in the chapter on the origin of the stave and clefs he succeeds in making clear, even without the use of colored inks, the various curious steps in the evolution of musical notation.

These and other merits make it a matter of regret that Mr. Rockstro's book should be marred by so many shortcomings. Of the ancients, the Greeks alone are briefly considered; while, at the other end, the most important factor in modern music, the orchestra, is so far disregarded as to its evolution that we are told concerning Berlioz that he has not left a "lasting impression either upon dramatic or instrumental music." The device of printing musical terms in capital letters is carried to excess, and far too much space is devoted to the enumeration of lists of compositions and to biographies of third to tenth-rate composers. This takes up the space that ought to have been devoted to the development of the *Lied* or accompanied song, of pianoforte style, of orchestral arrangement, and various other topics on which the author is silent.

A woful want of proportion and perspective is indeed the besetting sin of this book. The fact that a disproportionate amount of space is assigned to English composers is admitted in the preface, and may be pardoned under the circumstances, although even an English student must be puzzled to find that Handel gets seventeen pages and Beethoven only five, while Bach gets only half as much space as Handel, although he has had ten times more influence on the great modern composers, however much Handel may have surpassed him in popularity. Such disproportion is objectionable, because it gives the reader a wrong idea regarding the relative importance of composers; and it ought to be self-evident that this relative importance is decided by a composer's originality and his influence on contemporaries and successors, and not by the frequency of performance of his works, else Offenbach and Milloecker would rank higher than Weber and Beethoven. In the case of Mendelssohn and Schumann, this disproportion becomes positively ludicrous. Schumann, who has contributed a hundred times as many original ideas of permanent value to music as Mendelssohn, is disposed of in four pages, while Mendelssohn gets almost twenty, in specially fine print, thus making him the most important personage in the whole history of music. Of these twenty pages, one and a half are devoted to a description of Mendelssohn's visit to the Queen, on which important occasion the Prince Consort changed the stops, the Queen picked up some music that had fallen on the floor, and the parrot had to be carried out because it made so much noise.

In a history of music which devotes twenty pages to Mendelssohn, eight to Purcell, and four to Dr. Arne (whose name, outside of England, not one concert-goer in a thousand has heard), how many ought there to be for Chopin, one of the most original and quietly revolutionary minds the world has ever seen—Chopin, who effected as great a change in the style of pianoforte composition as Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven together did in orchestral style? Mr. Rockstro settles the question very simply. He pats Chopin on the back by calling him "ineffably original," adds ten more *lines*, without indicating a single feature of his style or mentioning one of his works, and then passes on to Liszt, who is dismissed with the same condescending brevity. Indeed, it is nothing less than a burlesque on musical history to find the author setting up as the seven greatest composers the world has seen Palestrina, Handel, Bach, Gluck, Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven; then, as the "seven lesser lights" next following, Schubert, Weber, Spohr, Mendelssohn, Schumann, Cimarosa (!), Cherubini; and Chopin by inference placed as a third-rate composer—Chopin, who never had but one equal as a melodist (Schubert) and no superior as an original harmonist, not even Bach or Wagner. There is also something supremely absurd in the idea that Schumann, Schubert, and Weber do not rank as high as Handel, Mozart, and Haydn. They were not only greater from an absolute point of view because standing on the latter's shoulders, but also from a relative point of view, because more original in their own period.

Under these circumstances it is hardly to be wondered at that Mr. Rockstro entirely ignores Rubinstein in the text, mentioning him only in two lines in a footnote. He protests, indeed, that a history does not deal with contemporaries; but why then does he devote two pages to Gounod, and more or less space to several other living musicians who are vastly the inferiors of Rubinstein? In the last chapter he bewails the absence of a leader to carry on the development of music. We do not hesitate to prophesy that Mr. Rockstro, if he lives ten years longer, will see Rubinstein placed on a par with Beethoven. He will find many of the most gifted amateurs of the present day preferring Rubinstein's dramatic symphony to any of Beethoven's; he will find them turning from Beethoven's chamber music to Rubinstein's as more sympathetic; and he will find that, *e. g.*, Rubinstein's 'cello sonatas are superior to Beethoven's not only as regards their musical contents, but as showing Rubinstein's better understanding of the 'cello as well as the piano. As between "Fidelio" and Rubinstein's operas, we frankly acknowledge our preference for the latter; and that Rubinstein's songs are infinitely more beautiful than Beethoven's, no sane person will deny. This may seem a bold comparison, but we speak advisedly.

However, there is hope that Mr. Rockstro and other English musicians will come to see, ere long, what a wonderful creative genius the Russian pianist is. This hope is based on the fact that Mr. Rockstro has quite recently entirely changed his mind regarding Wagner. A few years ago he told the readers of his articles in Grove's 'Dictionary' that "at present 'Non più andrai' and 'Madamina' still hold their ground, and may possibly win"; that the brilliant accessories of the Nibelung festival argued "a sign of great weakness" in the work itself; that "unless the experience of all history lies, Wagner will be lovingly remembered by *Senta's* Ballad [ballad is "English, you know"], 'Traft ihr das Schiff,' ages after his operas have ceased to be performed in their entirety," etc. In the volume now before us he frankly cries *peccavi!* "We do not hesitate to say that, during a certain stage of the controversy, we were led, in company with many others, into grievous misapprehension, through the repetition, *ad nauseam*, of unintelligent eulogies, which did more damage to the cause they were intended to support than could have been effected by any amount of vituperation culled from Herr von Tappert's 'Vocabulary.'"

It is amusing to note the intense hatred of recent converts to Wagnerism for those who had brains or opportunities enough to appreciate him from the beginning. Even Dr. Hanslick, after writing that it was a "torture" to listen to the Tetralogy, had the impudence to claim, after Wagner's death, that no one had ever opposed Wagner save only what Rockstro calls his "unintelligent eulogists"—*i. e.*, those who liked "Siegfried" better than *Senta's* ballad or the "Tannhäuser" march. However, it would be ungene-

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rous to take Mr. Rockstro to task too severely, as he is now quite within the fold of the faithful. Not only does he devote a whole chapter of his precious space to Wagner, but he begins by telling the reader that "2,000 years ago the 'Antigone' of Sophocles affected the Greeks as 'Tristan und Isolde' affects us now." The opening bars of this ultra-Wagnerian work are "ravishingly beautiful," and the whole drama "may be fitly described as one long unbroken stream of melody, from beginning to end—melody infinitely more impassioned, and not a whit less tuneful, even at the moment of *Isolde's* death, than the most captivating strains in the poisoning scene in 'Lucrezia Borgia.'" Mr. Rockstro will now probably see to it that his utterances in the early numbers of Grove are properly revised up to date when a new edition is called for.

RECENT WORKS ON CHEMISTRY.

Elements of Inorganic Chemistry. By James H. Shepard. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

An Introduction to the Study of Chemistry. By Ira Remsen. Henry Holt & Co.

The Elements of Thermal Chemistry. By M. M. Pattison Muir, assisted by David Muir Wilson. Macmillan & Co.

An author must possess in large measure the courage of his convictions to venture to add another text-book on elementary chemistry to the already long list. Mr. Shepard pleads as his excuse "the hearty commendations of teachers of national reputation and undoubted ability." In his book no radical departure from the usual arrangement of the usual matter is made: the occurrence, preparation, and properties of the inorganic elements and some of their compounds are given; chemical theory is fragmentarily developed; a number of experiments are described, and an appendix conveys somewhat meagre information about laboratory apparatus, reagents, and operations. All this may be found, sometimes better, sometimes worse, in a dozen other books. What is not usual is the fusion of the elements of qualitative analysis with the rest, and, as a minor feature, the breaking of the text with numerous fine-print paragraphs of "suggestions," "notes," "remarks," "cautions," "queries," etc. Some of these last are calculated to annoy the competent teacher, who naturally prefers to ask his own questions, and is not given to propounding such inane ones as that in regard to the name of iodine (page 116). In his introductory remarks, the author makes a great deal of what he "begs leave to christen The Scientific Method"; but his discussion of methods, no less than the text, shows that he fails to apprehend and to apply even *a* scientific method (without the small capitals).

In returning thanks, in his preface, to those who have assisted him (and the list is a long one), Mr. Shepard makes Dr. Remsen appear as a quasi-godfather to his book. Our surprise at this, and belief that in some way Dr. Remsen's apparent endorsement must be due to a misapprehension on the part of Mr. Shepard, are strengthened by the publication, after a short interval, of an elementary text-book by Dr. Remsen himself. Of his qualification for the task he has undertaken it is needless here to speak. He is widely known, not only as an eminent chemist, but also as a clear and careful writer on chemical themes—a practical educator, intent on teaching students to *think*. He makes no apology for his book, nor needs to, for it will be welcomed by all who are anxious to see chemical teaching lifted out of the rut into which it has for the most part fallen. His book abounds in well-selected, explicitly described experiments, set in a text which is always clear and attractive, and often very suggestive. Rather more than half the book (231 pages) is devoted to the discussion of the chemical phenomena presented by four elements (oxygen, hydrogen, nitrogen, and carbon) and their compounds, thereby furnishing an admirable development of the fundamental laws and theories of chemistry. This is the distinctive feature of the book, and is a long step towards a proper teaching of the science which has probably been more unscientifically taught than any other. Dogmatic presentation has unhappily been too long the rule: chemistry has been treated by the teacher as a bundle of more or less vaguely connected facts about the properties and reactions of substances, while the training of the student in scientific thinking has been almost neglected. The use of Dr. Remsen's book will go far to correct this evil.

Mr. Muir follows his excellent work on the 'Principles of Chemistry' (1884) with an admirable text-book on thermal chemistry. It is the first attempt to give in English a connected account of this important method of investigating chemical phenomena. Planning at first, as we learn from the preface, to make a somewhat modified translation of Naumann's well-known 'Lehr- und Handbuch der Thermochemie,' the author fortunately concluded to present the subject in his own way and from a point of view essentially different from that of Naumann. The first chapter is occupied with a clear and concise outline of the underlying principles of Heat and of Chemistry, and is followed by a brief but adequate description of the instruments and methods employed in thermo-chemical investigations. Two chapters are then devoted to an account of the applications of thermal methods to the study of chemical phenomena and to phenomena partly chemical and partly physical; and the text closes with a chapter on the bearing of thermal results on the questions of chemical equilibrium and affinity. The last third (100 pages) of the book contains appendices giving most of the well-established data which have been obtained.

In addition to the very satisfactory presentation of the subject, the work has a distinct critical value. Thus, Thompsen's attempt to assign a dynamical value to each of the "bonds" of carbon is shown to rest upon a fundamental assumption which is quite unjustified, and Thompsen's conclusions are "meaningless or . . . completely demolish the theory of bonds they are supposed to support"; and the "law of maximum work" is proved to be too wide a generalization. Emphasis is laid on the difficulties which everywhere beset the interpretation of thermal data: "thermal chemistry is yet in its beginning; the facts suggest more questions than they answer." Mr. Muir indicates the lines in which work is most necessary, and does much to stimulate investigation.

The book is fairly free from errors, but it is a pity that the graphic diagrams on pages 83 and 96 should have been so carelessly drawn, and that the plate, referred to even in the "corrections" as facing page 158, should be found opposite page 1.

The Life of William Carey, D.D., Shoemaker and Missionary. By George Smith, LL.D. London: John Murray. 1885.

The life of William Carey, the Baptist missionary, is the third important work which Dr. George Smith has devoted to the vindication of missionary enterprise in India. The others are accounts of the life and labors of the two eminent Scotch missionaries, Alexander Duff, of Calcutta, and John Wilson, of Calcutta. The style in which these works are written will not be altogether pleasing to any but dwellers within the sanctuary. It is painfully stilted, excessively eulogistic, magnifying beyond all reasonable proportions the acts and sayings of his heroes; and is throughout characterized by an aggressive "cock-sureness" eminently provocative of dissent. At the same time, the author's industry and his intimate knowledge of what he is writing about are undeniable; and few who read these modern "Acts of the Apostles" will be inclined to deny that Dr. Smith has fully proved the surpassing value and importance of missionary labor in India as an agent, not less for the humanizing of British rule than for the elevation of the native character.

The labors of the Christian missionary in India are not to be gauged by the number of actual converts that he succeeds in making. These are by no means so inconsiderable as is generally supposed, while every convert constitutes an additional support towards the stability and duration of British rule. For, as Alexander Duff pointed out many years ago, while English education without Christianity appears potent only to kindle, if not positive disloyalty, a sense of discontent and antagonism to the established order of things, English education *plus* Christianity awaken feelings just the reverse. The native Christian perceives that the continuance of British rule is indispensable to the free and peaceful practice of the creed which he has embraced, and so it came about that in 1857, although the native Christian community were subjected at that time to cruel legal disabilities, they set a conspicuous example of loyalty to the State. But when William Carey and his two companions, Marshman and Ward, began their labors at Serampore, the state of British India was far other than it is now or was in 1857. The cardinal doctrine in the political creed of the English officials was that British rule in India depended upon absolute non-interference with the religious beliefs and religious practices of the native population. Not only were the authorities careful to abstain from all legal restrictions upon them, but they were bound to see that no one—missionary or otherwise—in his private capacity attempted to persuade the natives to a more excellent way. Even the introduction of English education was prohibited as calculated to "offend native prejudices." The men who set themselves thus sedulously to guard the sanctity of "native prejudices" naturally ended by becoming slaves to those prejudices themselves. The young civilian was told on arriving in the country, that his first business was to "stock a zenana." An officer writing in 1774 said that the "luxury of a large seraglio was reserved for those who were high in the service and received large emoluments." Gaming, dicing, drunkenness, appear to have been the principal relaxations of the English officials. In British India itself there was, as might have been expected, no security for men bound upon such an enterprise as William Carey with his two friends. And had they been audacious enough to begin their operations therein, they would immediately have been arrested, put upon shipboard, and sent back to England.

Happily for the people of India and the preservation of British rule, the town of Serampore, on the Hooghley, just thirteen miles above Calcutta, was, at that time and for long after, a Danish settlement. The arbitrary power of the British Government did not extend to residents within this settlement, and the Danish King was not possessed by the morbid terror of Christianity and Christian missionaries which had taken hold of the minds of the Calcutta officials. Here, accordingly, Carey and his friends were permitted to set up "the Serampore Mission"—the originator, it may be said, and, so long as it lasted, a most efficient inspirer and executor, of whatever good the English may have wrought in India. Those who are curious to learn by what gigantic labors, what disinterested and long-continued sac-

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rifices, this good was effected, will find the story told with an abundance of knowledge in the volume under review. It is, in truth, difficult to see how British rule in India could have been preserved but for the quickening influence of the Serampore missionaries. They breathed a new life into it by showing that all which the authorities had declared to be dangerous and impracticable could be effected without danger to the state, and with immense advantage to both rulers and ruled. They led the way in the education of the natives; they not simply translated but *printed* the Bible in the principal vernaculars of India, thus laying the foundations of a literature for the entire continent; and to them is due the entire credit of so stimulating the European conscience that the Indian Government was at last emboldened to prohibit the cruelty of widow-burning and other like abominations which, till the Serampore missionaries raised their voices against them, no one had dared to meddle with, lest "native prejudices" should resent the proceeding.

Apart, however, from his labors at Serampore, William Carey must always be a remarkable figure in the history of mankind as the reviver of the missionary spirit in Great Britain and the United States. It is difficult to believe that at the beginning of this century this spirit was so dormant in both countries that when Carey first started the notion of missions for the conversion of the heathen he was everywhere denounced as a dangerous madman. At that time, neither in Great Britain nor in this country, did there exist an organization of any kind for conveying a knowledge of Christianity to lands which were ignorant of it. British Protestantism held itself exonerated from the duty of "preaching the Gospel to all nations" until a second Pentecostal visitation should have miraculously endowed its followers with the gift of tongues. Carey was a man of the humblest origin. He was a cobbler's apprentice and the member of a small sect, the Particular Baptists. But he had a genius for the acquisition of languages, and, almost without assistance, while cobbling shoes, he contrived to obtain a considerable knowledge of Latin and Greek. He had also a great love of geography Dr. Smith relates that sheets of paper were stuck on the walls of his room, divided into sections, each section standing for one of the countries of the world. In this section it was his custom to enter whatever information he gathered in the course of his reading regarding that particular country, and by this simple means he acquired, while still a young man, a remarkable acquaintance with the peoples and countries of the globe. Religious feelings of peculiar intensity combined with this knowledge to awaken within him that missionary spirit which, without money, friends, or other means of subsistence, sent him to attempt the conversion of the people of India. He had a hard battle to fight with the members of his own little denomination before they would look upon him as other than a man possessed with a devil. Sydney Smith poured all the vials of his satire upon the head of the "consecrated cobbler." All sections of Protestantism were amazed and irritated at his folly and presumption. But neither opposition nor adverse criticism caused him to deviate for an instant from the purpose on which he had fixed his mind, and the reawakening of the missionary spirit among the English-speaking races was the direct product of his earnestness and constancy.

The Choice of Books, and Other Literary Pieces. By Frederic Harrison. Macmillan & Co. 1886. Also, Harper's Handy Series.

MR. HARRISON takes pains to say in his preface that this collection of essays "deals solely with books, art, and history—not with politics, philosophy, or religion"; but he thus only shows the more clearly that he is too much in earnest ever to indulge in merely literary criticism. It is one of the results of Comte's life which do honor to his memory, that his influence always seems to turn to an energizing vital principle in his disciples. Mr. Harrison's mind has been so absorbed in the idea of society that he cannot write without some political, philosophical, or religious reference to it; and the most he can mean by claiming that the present volume is distinctly literary is, that the essays set out from a literary starting point. The Comtist watchword, Humanity, indicates to most readers a vague revolutionary tendency of a doctrinaire kind; but it has proved a rich idea to those who have allowed it to germinate in their minds, and in effect has caused a reaction against the Revolution as commonly understood. In these essays it is easy to observe how it has given value to man's past, in Mr. Harrison's case, developed his catholic sympathies, and especially made him preëminently a seeker of the organic centres and bonds of union in society, and an upholder of order above all things. He could never be an anarchist.

This incorporation of Comtist ideas into his life appears most impressively in one of the essays that are now first printed, the review of Mr. Monson's 'St. Bernard of Clairvaux.' This study of a man who represents almost, if not quite, ideally the typical Apostle of Humanity, in whom mere excellence dominates and blesses the life of men in their grand social relations, is the most valuable of the fifteen papers which the book contains, and is of the highest moral reach and suggestiveness. The same seriousness, though not so intense, pervades the book; and though there are many passages of cleverness, of wit and sharp sarcasm, and flashes of the lighter play of his brilliant literary art, the preacher's earnestness is never far away. It is good sermonizing, too. The glowing indignation at the lot of the poor, the fixed faith in the destiny of the people, the unrestrained denunciation of the waste and folly of the energies and pursuits of most of us, kindle many an ardent page; and through all breathes the spirit of a man who, whether duped or inspired, is settled on doing his part in the work of the time. To read such words is both vivifying and humanizing. There is instruction to be had, also. 'The Choice of Books' is the sage advice of so many wise men repeated once more—to trust the sentence of the race and read the classics. The essay on Carlyle is at once appreciative of his genius and character and just to his stupendous errors. The paper on the eighteenth century, with its widening of the field of view, and the one on the nineteenth, with its interrogations as to the justice of our self-gratulation, are admirable examples of the way in which historical periods should be examined; and these, which we have mentioned, are typical of the whole contents of a volume which, though it belongs to magazine literature, attains the highest level in that class.

American Statute Law. By Frederic J. Stimson. Boston: Charles C. Soule.

MENTION has already been made in these columns of Mr. Stimson's work, which he describes on the title-page as being "an analytical and compared digest of the constitutions and civil public statutes of all the States and Territories relating to persons and property in force January 1, 1886." We wish that the trained and enthusiastic scholar who prepared this book might be sure of a sale of it which is at all proportioned to its merits, for these are very great. In the first 134 pages a comparative summary is given of the provisions of all the State constitutions, and of certain analogous laws of the Territories and of the United States relating to the Territories. For convenience the Territories are included among the "States," and the constitutions count as "statutes." Then follows a like statement of the private civil law of all the States and Territories, covering more than 600 pages. Another volume is in preparation which is to include "Public Law," under the two divisions of "private corporations and municipal corporations"; "Adjective Law," under the two heads of "Probate Code and Civil Procedure"; and "Criminal Law." These titles, it may be presumed, will be more fully explained and justified hereafter. One may see something of the author's method by the following specimen of it, from the early part of the book, relating to the Bills of Rights:

"Article 1. Natural Rights.

"§ 10. Freedom. The Constitutions of eighteen States have a provision that men are free.

"(A) Thus, in two States the Constitution declares that all men are born free and independent: Mass. C., 1, 1; S. C. C., 1, 1. (B) In seven, that they are by nature free and independent: N. J. C., 1, 1; O. C., 1, 1; Ill. C., 2, 1; Io. C., 1, 1; Cal. C., 1, 1; Nev. C., 1, 1; Fla. C., Decln. R'ts, 1. (C) In one, that they are equally free and independent: Ala. C., 1, 1. (D) In seven, that they are born equally free and independent: N. H. C., 1, 1; Me. C., 1, 1; Vt. C., 1, 1; Pa. C., 1, 1; Wis. C., 1, 1; Neb. C., 1, 1; Ark. C., 2, 2. (E) In two, that they are by nature equally free and independent: Va. C., 1, 1; W. Va. C., 3, 1."

The letter C stands for constitution; and the omission to mention any State imports that there is nothing on the subject there. The author's divisional arrangements of the book are very carefully thought out, and, with a little preliminary attention to the explanations given of them, will be found clear and simple. It has only been possible to present in so small a space the substance of the enormous mass of matter with which the writer had to deal by omitting statutes of "purely local interest or special application," and by the author's availing himself of a curious discovery that the legislation of the States goes largely in groups.

"He found that one main stream of legislation could be traced, occasionally comprehending all the Northern, Eastern, and Northwestern States, more often divided into two main bodies, the one following in its legislation the general model of the State of New York, the other that of the New England States. He found, besides this, another important group, containing the Southwestern States, under the general lead of Maryland and Virginia; and still a third and smaller group, comprising the Gulf States. Besides these three main groups, there was one State with laws wholly anomalous (Louisiana), and others (like California, Dakota, New Mexico, and Georgia) with laws peculiar to a greater or less extent."

We have had occasion to make practical use of Mr. Stimson's book repeatedly, and can speak confidently of its careful and thorough quality. The index might with advantage be made more complete; we have now and then had to search unduly long, for lack of some fulness there. This defect is the more important for the reason that the writer and his reader may have a different theory of arrangement. We found ourselves, *e. g.*, at much loss to get at some of the matter contained in s. 553.

This book should help rapidly to the uniformity and improvement of our State legislation. It will prove of the greatest help to the student of social science and comparative law; see, *e. g.*, the eighty-four pages which summarize the legislation on Marriage, Divorce, and Husband and Wife. Few practising lawyers who have to prepare a case which requires any wide range of argument and illustration, will find it possible to dispense with this excellent guide. It is a monument of devoted and faithful labor in a region which attracts far too little attention.

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Oblomoff; Scènes de la vie russe. Par Ivan Gortcharoff. Traduction de Piotre Artamoff; revue, corrigée et augmentée d'une notice sur l'auteur, par Charles Deulin. Paris: Didier et Cie.

It is not among "the books of the week" that this volume belongs in any sense of the phrase. It was written twenty-eight years ago, and the French translation was published nine years ago; yet it is "a new book" to most of us. It ought not to remain unknown to the readers of Turgeneff, Tolstoi, and Dostoyevsky; and if the name of Gortcharoff will not take rank precisely with these, none the less this little volume might serve as an admirable and very interesting preface to the greater, the loftier, and the deeper, the more imaginative and more thoughtful works of these other authors. It is, indeed, in its own nature and structure a preface—a prologue or an epilogue—more than anything else. In its original form it has the least possible "story," and in the French, which is only the first portion of the original, there is literally no story at all: it is simply the narrative of the hours from eight in the morning till four in the afternoon of a day passed by the unheroic hero in bed—out of pure laziness. The scene is confined to his apartment in St. Petersburg, the action to his thoughts and conditions, and the visits he receives from four of his friends and his doctor. Not a woman appears on the stage; the protagonist is not in female shape, but may be discovered in Oblomoff's fifty-years-old man-servant, who is made vividly known to the spectator (for with this book one is *spectator* rather than *reader*) by a portrait of extraordinary vigor and equal carefulness, which to classify as "a man-servant" renders no justice to the complete originality and really the importance of the type, an animal-like serf in the garb and position of a valet.

The ability of which this creation gives proof is likewise evidenced by the delicate skill with which an almost breathless interest is excited in the action of the drama of Oblomoff's mind, in the events of his thoughts. So admirably true to human nature is this representation that there are few of us who have not known at least some one man more or less of an Oblomoff; but so particularly true is it to the characters produced in Russia, especially during the last generation, under the influence of the national institutions and modes of life as well as of the climate, that we are told the word *oblomovism* has there come into use to designate the dreamy and vacillating indolence peculiar to the Russian temperament.

A considerable portion of the book is arranged in the "cadre" of a dream; a dream which brings before Oblomoff his childhood and boyhood, and his provincial, ancestral home. As we gaze at the vision thus displayed to us we perceive infinitely much beside, behind, beyond the immediate scene. Conditions of life absolutely unknown to our own experience reveal themselves as causes and consequences of familiar pages in history; strange surprises of social facts explain and are explained by old political truths. In a word, no one interested in Russia should fail to read this book. But every one interested in the book will demand eagerly and we hope imperatively a complete and satisfactory translation of it. The French translation (seemingly of the best as far as it goes) wandered about Paris for fifteen years seeking a publisher. Let some American publisher see to it that fifteen months from to-day we have an English translation of the whole work in our hands.

It is a book which it is absolutely impossible to make known at all by extracts. There is no one sentence or paragraph which lends itself to quotation. Its merit consists in the tone, the coloring that pervades every page, and that harmonizes and dignifies the innumerable details, which, almost in the manner of Flaubert, abound to an extraordinary degree.

The Spartan and Theban Supremacies. By Charles Sankey, M.A., joint-editor of the series, assistant master in Marlborough College. With five maps. [Epochs of Ancient History.] Charles Scribner's Sons. 1886.

Mr. Sankey's work probably completes the series of Ancient Epochs, at least for all except the latest and perhaps the earliest period. The epochal or "horizontal" treatment—not conspicuous in more than one or two of this series, and, indeed, not well fitted to ancient history as a whole—hardly appears at all in this volume. It is simply a history of Greece during the hegemonies of Sparta and Thebes. Persia is mentioned incidentally in connection with the expedition of Cyrus and the Peace of Antalcidas, but we are told nothing of its history. Of Syracuse we have a bare mention; of Rome—which during these years passed through very critical experiences—not even that. The rather uninteresting period under review possesses nevertheless a well-defined unity, so far as Greek history is concerned—the establishment of the harsh and unjust rule of Sparta, the iron despotism under which Greece was held, and its deliverance at the hand of Thebes. But Thebes, while strong enough to throw off the Spartan yoke, had not the qualities to establish a permanent leadership for herself. A short account—too short, we think—of the career and works of Epaminondas supplements the history of the Spartan rule which makes up the greater part of the volume. The interest in these years is chiefly political, and here Mr. Sankey is at his best. The account, for example, of the Government of the Thirty Tyrants at Athens and its overthrow, is exceedingly well told, and the characters of Theramenes and Critias sketched with great fidelity. Agesilaus, too—the hero of the greater part of the volume—is very well described, and his exploits narrated at length. The Theban period, notwithstanding the excellence of the characterization of its two great men, is, as we have said, rather too briefly told; and a very abrupt ending corresponds perhaps to the abruptness with which Thebes lost its place at the head of the Greek States, and the rapidity with which Macedonia succeeded to it.

Studies in Greek Thought. By Lewis R. Packard. Boston: Ginn & Co.

In this small volume the friends of the late Prof. Packard have gathered from the papers of that lamented scholar a number of essays and outlines which will serve to recall to those who knew him the intellectual image of the man, and to give those who never had the privilege of his personal acquaintance the impression of a grave and thoughtful student, of one who had made what he had learned from others his own by individual reflection, and who had caught from intimate association with the great masters of expression the purity of style that became the elevated range of his thought. The brief preface does not give clearly the keynote of his heroic life, of the long struggle with pain and weakness under which a nature of less noble temper would have sunk without an effort. The calm of his style is the calm of one who has overcome.

To judge this little collection of essays as anything else than a personal memorial would be unfair. The themes of some—such as the Morality and Religion of the Greeks, or Plato's Scheme of Education—are too large for the compass to which the treatment is limited, while the other papers only serve to show how well that work was done which was intended for no wider circle than a college class. That such a man, known by his intimates and divined by his pupils to be a scholar of a high order, recognized among the Grecians of the country as the foremost of their Homeric students, should have left no great work as a monument of his long and influential career, is a matter of just regret to the great college in which he nobly maintained the high tradition of his predecessors, and to his friends whose devotion to him living and dead is the fairest testimony to the true lovableness of his nature. Authorship is exacted more and more of teachers—perhaps not always wisely; but here was a teacher endowed for authorship as few are endowed, and yet, by what seems an untoward fate, denied the achievement for which he was so rarely equipped. Still, he had written enough to keep his memory bright among American scholars of his generation, and he will live on in the lives of the many who had in him a guide and an example in the higher walks of Greek thought. All but one of these essays have to do with grave themes, and all show that we have lost in him a man who was something more than a grammarian, who had looked into problems of which the "corner-hummers," the γωνιοβόμβυκες of the Greek epigram, never dream in their drowsy buzz. And how great that loss is we can best estimate when we see how entirely our scholarship has run to grammar—grammar unmitigated by any such charm of literary expression as we recognize in this little volume.

Twenty-four Sermons Preached in All Souls' Church, New York, 1865-1881, by Henry W. Bellows, D.D., Minister of the First Congregational Church, 1839–1882. Selected and Edited by his Son, Russell N. Bellows. New York: Published by the Editor. 1886.

These twenty-four discourses may not appeal successfully to the general public, but among Unitarians they will be highly valued, especially among those to whom Dr. Bellows preached for more than forty years, and they will enable others to know something of the habitual preaching of one of the most brilliant and erratic preachers of the Unitarian sect. It was as an extempore speaker that Dr. Bellows had his great successes, and at times when his speaking was absolutely extemporaneous, without the least premeditation. Often he then said what he did not mean to say when he set out, but something worse or better: he was carried away, and his hearers with him, by the tide of his resistless eloquence. For the best enjoyment of these discourses, one should be able to remember him at such times. Then the printed matter will be informed with his voice and gesture.

The discourses are hardly less extempore than were his most spontaneous speeches. They were evidently written just as fast as he could drive his pen. The defects of such easy writing are palpable. It is not hard reading, but the argument is sometimes fanciful and superficial. Dr. Bellows is revealed in some of his most poetic moods and also in the stress of his denominational zeal. He was never a consistent thinker, but during the last years of his life his tendencies were clearly rationalistic. He said of Parker, soon after his death (1860), "I will not say that Theodore Parker is a lost soul, but I am obliged to say that he had not conformed to the conditions of salvation." But in these discourses we find him insisting upon Parker's views of many things, and it would have been easy to find others in which he ranked Parker with Channing as a typical Unitarian. The sermon on the "Resurrection of Human Nature" is perhaps the best, as well as the most characteristic, in the entire collection. To those who know Dr. Bellows well this book will seem to represent his later thought imperfectly. But he was

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a man of many moods, and in the pulpit did not always have the courage of his more secluded hours.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, Mrs. Beaton's Bargain. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Balestier, W. A Victorious Defeat: A Romance. Harper & Brothers.
Bartlett, J. G. Edith Dayton: A Novel. Brentano Bros. 50 cents.
Bernhardt, Dr. W. German Grammar and Reader. 2 vols. Boston: Carl Schoenhof.
Bowker, R. R. Economics for the People. Harper & Brothers.
Brachet, A. An Etymological Dictionary of the French Language. Englished by G. W. Kitchin. 3d ed. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Bunner, H. C. The Midge. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Burty, P. Bernard Palissy. Paris: J. Rouam.
Chambers, J. Lovers Four and Maidens Five: A Story of the Allegheny Mountains. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. 25 cents.
Clément, C. Decamps. Paris: J. Rouam.
Colby, C. C. Parliamentary Government in Canada. Montreal: Dawson Bros.
Collignon, M. A Manual of Greek Archæology. Englished by J. H. Wright. Cassell & Co. $2.
Crocker, U. H. The Depression in Trade and the Wages of Labor. Boston: W. B. Clarke & Carruth.
Dall, Mrs. C. H. What We Really Know About Shakspere. 2d ed. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Davies, C. Modern Whist; Together with the Laws of Whist. Scribner & Welford.
Demos: A Story of English Socialism. Harper & Brothers. 25 cents.
Duplessis, G., and Bouchot, H. Dictionnaire des Marques et Monogrammes de Graveurs. Paris: J. Rouam.
Edgeworth, Maria. The Absentee: An Irish Story. Harper & Brothers. 25 cents.
Edwards, H. S. The Faust Legend: its Origin and Development. Scribner & Welford.
Encyclopædia Britannica. Vol. XX. 9th ed. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Farini, G. A. Through the Kalahari Desert. Scribner & Welford.
Feuillet, O. Aliette (La Morte). Englished by J. H. Hager. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Fleay, F. G. A Chronicle History of the Life and Work of William Shakspere. Scribner & Welford.
Foster, D. The Scientific Angler. 3d ed. London: Bemrose & Sons.
Friedrich der Grosse: Denkwürdigkeiten seines Lebens nach seinen Schriften, etc. Leipzig: F. W. Grunow; New York: Westermann. 2 vols.
Gauthiez, P. Prud'hon. Paris: J. Rouam.
Geikie, A. Class-Book of Geology. Macmillan & Co. $2.60.
George, H. Protection or Free Trade; an Examination of the Tariff Question with Especial Regard to the Interests of Labor. Henry George & Co. $1.50.
Gibbs, J. W. M. Works of Oliver Goldsmith. New ed. Vol. V. Bohn's Standard Library. Scribner & Welford.
Grimm, H. Das Leben Raphaels. Berlin: Wilhelm Hertz; New York: Westermann.
Gröber, G. Grundriss der Romanischen Philologie. Part I. Strassburg: K. J. Trübner.
Harsha, W. J. A Timid Brave: The Story of an Indian Uprising. Funk & Wagnalls. 75 cents.
Hazlitt, W. C. Letters of Charles Lamb. 2 vols. Bohn's Standard Library. Scribner & Welford.
Henne am Rhyn, O. Kulturgeschichte des Deutschen Volkes. Part I. Berlin: Grote; New York: Westermann & Co.
Herbert, W. Not His Daughter: An American Novel. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $1.
Horstmann, G. H. Consular Reminiscences. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.25.
Hudson, E. A Memorial of Mary Clemmer. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
Ibsen, H. Nora: A Play. Englished by Henrietta F. Lord. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Jenkins, R. C. Heraldry, English and Foreign. Scribner & Welford.
Lehmayer, M. Should Juries in Criminal Cases be Judges of the Law and Fact? Baltimore: Cushings & Bailey.
Lescure, M. de. Lettres d'amour d'Henri IV. Boston: Schoenhof.
Logan, Gen. J. A. The Great Conspiracy: Its Origin and History. A. R. Hart & Co.
Log of the *Ariel* in the Gulf of Maine. Illustrated by L. S. Ipsen. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. $2.
Longhaye, G. Théorie des Belles-Lettres, L'âme et les choses dans la parole. Boston: Schoenhof.
Martinengo-Cesaresco, Countess E. Essays in the Study of Folk-Songs. Scribner & Welford.
Michel, E. Rembrandt. Paris: J. Rouam.
Minchin, G. M. A Treatise on Statics with Applications to Physics. Vol. II. 3d ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons.
Molesworth, G. L. Text-book of Bi-metallism. London: E. & F. N. Spon. 20 cents.
Molinier, E. Dictionnaire des Émailleurs. Paris: J. Rouam.
Monte-Cristo's Daughter. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 75 cents.
Moore, F. Songs and Ballads of the Southern People, 1861-65. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Morse, J. H. Summer Haven Songs. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Mowry, W. A. Talks with My Boys. Revised ed. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.
Müntz, E. Donatello. Paris: J. Rouam.
Murray, D. C. Aunt Rachel: A Rustic Sentimental Comedy. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Nixon, R. C. J. Euclid Revised. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons.
Nordau, Max. Paradoxes. Translated from the German. Chicago: L. Schick. $1.
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O'Connor, W. D. Hamlet's Note-book. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Orr, Mrs. S. A Handbook to the Works of Robert Browning. 2d ed. Scribner & Welford.
Panin, Ivan. Thoughts. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.
Parker, Jane M. The Midnight Cry: A Novel. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Peirce, B. O. Elements of the Theory of the Newtonian Potential Function. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.60.
Phillips, W. A. Labor, Land, and Law. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.50.
Pontmartin, A. de. Mes Mémoires: Seconde Jeunesse. 2e série. Boston: Schoenhof.

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